Sources of Elementary Teachers' Perspectives and Decisions: Implications for Preservice and Inservice Education

Final Report

Janis Blakey
Charles Chamberlin
Lorene Everett-Turner
Gwen Halabisky
Gerard M. Kysela
Freida Maaskant
Don Massey
Carole Massing
Margaret McNay
Marilyn Mochoruk
David Sande
Neil Scott
Earl Stephanson
David Tucker

Departments of Elementary Education
and Educational Psychology
University of Alberta

Under Contract to Alberta Education
Edmonton, Alberta
June, 1992

Alberta
EDUCATION

ALBERTA EDUCATION CATALOGUING IN PUBLICATION DATA

Alberta. Alberta Education.

Sources of elementary teachers' perspectives and decisions : implications for preservice and inservice education : final report.

ISBN 0-7732-0820-8

1. Education, Elementary -- Alberta -- Aims and objectives. 2. Education, Elementary -- Research -- Alberta. 3. Education, Elementary -- Alberta -- Case Studies. 4. Elementary school teachers -- In-service training -- Alberta. 5. Elementary school teachers -- Training of -- Alberta. I. Title.

LB1776.4.C22A3.A333 1992 370.712 2

Copyright 1992, the Crown in Right of Alberta, as represented by the Minister of Education. Alberta Education, Policy and Planning Branch, 11160 Jasper Avenue, Edmonton, Alberta T5K 0L2

Permission is hereby given by the copyright owner for any person to reproduce this publication or any part thereof for educational purposes and on a non-profit basis.

This study is dedicated to the memory of Rene Fowlow

DISCLAIMER

Any views expressed herein are those of the authors and not necessarily those of Alberta Education.

93-00841/

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We have many people to thank for their help with different aspects of this research project during the past year.

- The teachers for their willingness to share their teaching experiences and for making a valuable contribution to the research on teacher perspective.
- The staff of the various schools which were included in the study for their hospitality.
- The people in the two school jurisdictions for facilitating our access to the classrooms.
- Those people in the Department of Elementary Education who typed, photocopied, and distributed research materials and facilitated communication between group members.
- Janice Jackson for voluntarily contributing to the project by her participation in group meetings, by writing a section of the final report, and by acting as a second reader of data.
- Magoroh Maruyama, Mary Young, Jean Clandinin, and Lilian Katz for their stimulating insights shared at project meetings.
- Division of Educational Research Services for their sharing of expertise in the technical aspects related to the use of computers.
- Tom Maguire for his guidance regarding ethical issues.
- Sheila Campbell for keeping us organized.
- Rene Fowlow of Alberta Education for strong encouragement and support.

ABSTRACT

This naturalistic study was conducted for the purpose of determining the perspectives held by beginning teachers, the decisions they make based on those perspectives, the factors affecting their perspectives and decision making, and the implications of the knowledge gained for refining and redesigning teacher preparation and inservice training programs. Following a pilot study in the spring of 1986, a team of 14 researchers (eight professors and six graduate students in the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta) collected information for the study from August to December 1986. Each researcher was paired with a beginning classroom teacher or intern in Edmonton and district schools. The researcher observed the teacher weekly, conducted an immediate follow up interview and collected relevant documents. Interviews were transcribed on computer disks and a printout was returned to the researcher before the next classroom visit. Weekly project meetings were used initially for researcher training, project coordination, discussion with visiting researchers, and literature reviews. After Christmas they were used for data analysis and discussion of emerging issues and themes. Each researcher prepared a case study on his or her teacher and this was verified with the teacher. A project manager participated as a member of the research team for training and discussion purposes, for project coordination including consistency of methodology, for supervision of data collection and transcription, and for editing the final report. The final report synthesized the findings for all the teachers for perspectives or beliefs and decisions, their responses to teaching, and the factors influencing their perspectives and decision making. The report provides recommendations in five areas: the nature of the student body, the instructors and places where instruction occurs, the socialization of teachers, program elements, and continuing professional development. The recommendations propose something of a reconceptualization of the teacher education program. The recommendations will be of use to teacher training institutions, school jurisdictions, and professional teachers.

CONTENTS

Acknowledgements ____ i

Abstract ____ ii

I. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Purpose of Study ____
Review of the Literature ____ 5

Studies Using Naturalistic Methodology ____ 5
Studies on Teacher Perspective ____ 5
Influences on Perspective ____ 7

Methodology ____ 9

The Teachers ____ 10
The Researchers ____ 10
Data Collection ____ 11

Observation ____ 11
Interviews ____ 12
Project meetings ____ 14

Data Analysis ____ 16

Notes ____ 18

Specific Questions: Perspective ____ 18

II. INFLUENCES

Pre-University Period ____ 22
University Period ____ 25
Post-University Period ____ 29

III. PERSPECTIVES: BEING A TEACHER

Shirley's Perspective ____ 33
Cheryl's Perspective ____ 34

Beliefs and Decisions ____ 35

Beliefs About Self as Teacher: That's Me ____ 35

Beliefs About the Teaching Situation: Plant Power ____ 38
Beliefs and Decisions About Society ____ 43
Beliefs and Decisions About Parents ____ 45
Beliefs About Parents Influencing Decisions About Students ____ 45
Beliefs About Parents Influencing Decisions About Parents ____ 49

Beliefs and Decisions About Children ____ 51

Belief: Children are Unique Individuals ____ 52
Belief: Children Learn Best Through Activities Which Are Meaningful and Enjoyable . ____ 54
Belief: Children Need to Develop Self-Esteem ____ 57
Belief: Children Require Socialization ____ 59

Beliefs and Decisions About How To Teach ____ 62

Teacher-Directed versus Student-Directed Learning ____ 62
Learning Centers ____ 63
Student Involvement in Decision Making ____ 64
Modeling and Student Independence ____ 65
Individualizing Instruction ____ 66
Specific Methods for Instruction ____ 67
Enjoyment of Learning and Respect of Students ____ 68
Summary ____ 69

Beliefs and Decisions About What to Teach ____ 70

The Written Curriculum ____ 70
The Hidden Curriculum ____ 73

Contradictions and Dilemmas ____ 74

Dilemma 1: Teacher-Directed versus Child-Centered Teaching ____ 75
Dilemma 2: The Written Curriculum versus the Hidden Curriculum ____ 78
Dilemma 3: The Purpose of Evaluation versus the Method of Evaluation ____ 79
Implications ____ 80

IV. EFFECTS: RESPONDING TO BEING A TEACHER

Introduction ____ 82
That Other Side of Teaching ____ 82
The Positive Side of Teaching ____ 87
Implications: Effects of Teaching ____ 91

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview 94

1. The Nature of the Student Body 95

2. Instructional Resources 97

3. The Socialization of Teachers 109

4. Program Elements 116

5. Continuing Professional Development 131

Needed Research 134

VI. GLOSSARY 138

VII. REFERENCES 139

VIII. A NOTE REGARDING THE CASE-STUDIES 144

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY 1-19

I. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Purpose of the Study

Teachers act within their classrooms in ways deeply affected by the perspectives they have built up over their lifetime. An important aspect of this study was to identify the factors from past and present experiences, as well as to understand the role of preservice and inservice education in shaping the developing perspectives of teachers beginning their careers.

Research has suggested that the activity of teachers reflects broad perspectives. From these perspectives, teachers develop ways of thinking about children, curricular content, materials, student groupings, teacher-student relationships, and classroom management. Becker, Geer, Hughes and Strauss (1961) explained how day-to-day decisions and actions of a professional flow from a perspective which forms "the underlying rationale for the person's actions and are seen by the actor as providing a justification for the acting he does" (p. 34).

Werner (1977) suggested that perspective is a broad world view which people develop from reflection on their own experience in their own culture. He defined perspective as "a subject-object relationship in which the subject selectively apprehends an object from the standpoint of his unique context, purposes and on-going history" (p. iv). According to Tabachnick (1981), perspective, along with other dynamic concepts, "may be conceptualized, not as objects external to and in some way independent of their participants, but rather as existing in some significant part in the consciousness and the belief systems of the participants themselves" (p. 79).

Janesick (1978) defined perspective as "an ordered view of one's world... a reflective, socially derived interpretation of that which he or she encounters, an interpretation which serves as a basis for the actions

which he or she constructs" (p. 3). She went further to say that a "person's perspective is a combination of beliefs and behaviors continually modified by social interaction" (p. 3).

The purpose of this naturalistic study was to examine how beginning teachers define and interpret their teaching world, make decisions, and construct their actions. The term beginning teachers is used with qualification because three of the teachers had more than two years of teaching experience. These goals directed the study:

1. To identify the kinds of perspectives held and the decisions made throughout the year by teachers who were recent graduates of the teacher education program of the University of Alberta.
2. To identify the factors affecting teacher perspectives and decision making.
3. To gain insights into redesigning or refining the teacher education program.
4. To provide understanding in redesigning inservice programs.

This study was developed by a team of professors in the Department of Elementary Education after a pilot study was conducted in the spring of 1986. For the pilot, seven researchers observed in classrooms and interviewed teachers over an eight-week period, gaining a great deal of information about teachers' views, beliefs, and actions. There appeared to be significant differences among teachers with different program backgrounds. The pilot data pointed out the need to study more classroom teachers over a longer period of time.

The study was initiated in August 1986 when a team of 14 researchers (eight professors and six graduate students) were paired with teachers. The teacher informants were chosen to represent the different programs

offered in the Department of Elementary Education as well as various grade levels and a range of teaching experience.

Each researcher visited a teacher's classroom weekly over a 15 week period from September through December. It was deemed important to make regular visits over this length of time, in order to observe and record details of actions and interactions in an attempt to understand the complexity and dynamics of the particular teacher's situation. Extensive field notes, class newsletters, teachers' plans, and weekly taped interviews with the teacher all contributed to the thick description of the context and teaching world within which decisions were made. Through the weekly interviews the researchers became aware of the meaning the teachers gave to classroom events which communicated aspects of the teachers' perspective.

At the end of the 15 weeks, individual case studies were written to illuminate the teaching world of each teacher. Each case study described elements of the teacher's perspectives, their relationship to day-to-day decision making, and factors that influenced the development of perspective. Despite the unique aspects of each teacher's situation as revealed in the case studies, commonalities allowed the research team to draw conclusions and suggest implications for preservice and inservice programs. These commonalities are different from generalizations, which are seen as, "truth statements that are context free, unchanging over time" (Guba, 1981, p. 11). We have endeavored to embed our understandings in thick description, tying them to a context, because transferability from one context to another "depends on the degree of fit between the contexts" (p. 11).

The need to consider the wide range of factors influencing a teacher's perspectives and teaching suggested the use of naturalistic research. Guba (1981) indicated that naturalistic inquiry is a research paradigm which assumes that "all parts of reality are interrelated so that the study of any one part necessarily influences all other parts" (p. 3). Guba noted that the knowledge gained often points to the importance of situational context or what Wilson (1977) referred to as the ecological framework "within which the subjects interpret their thoughts, feelings, and actions" (p. 249).

The need for descriptive studies was expressed by Johnston and Ryan (1983). They noted that research on the transition from student to practicing teacher has left more questions than answers because it has been too simplistic, and has "not aimed for a complete accounting of the complex events in the lives of beginning teachers" (p. 144). They said "methodological shortcomings may account for some limitations of the knowledge generated from beginning teacher problem studies" (p. 144). They called for a "'research agenda' which begins with a high priority on description" (p. 154). They agreed with Hinely and Ponder (1979) and Koeler (1979) that the first item on the research agenda must be descriptive studies "to provide understanding of what events occur in classrooms, why certain events occur, and of the meaning of these events in the classroom context" (p. 154).

Wragg (1982) concluded his Review of Research in Teacher Education with a section criticizing the body of research done for failing to begin with description. "Relatively few of the studies reviewed used any form of classroom observation.... However, unless we document the behavior of teachers and pupils we shall have no proper idea of the outcome of initial training or inservice workshops" (pp. 70-71).

Review of the Literature

Studies Using Naturalistic Methodology

Naturalistic inquiry in various forms has been used with encouraging results by several investigators attempting to gain holistic insights into teaching. Janesick (1978) used ethnographic research to study one teacher's perspective and was able to present a well-rounded picture of many factors influencing the teacher's teaching decisions. Tabachnick and Zeichner (1985) used a case study approach to reveal changes in perspective of four teachers during their first year of teaching. Smith and Geoffrey (1968) collaborated as researchers in Geoffrey's classroom for a year and were able to use the wealth of specific data from one setting to generate models of many aspects of teacher decision making.

Everett-Turner (1985) used a naturalistic approach "to become familiar with the everyday happenings in the new teacher's world, as well as delve into the meaning these happenings had for each participant" (p. 307). Because a teacher "is both affected by, and affects, the world into which she enters ... to understand what her world is really like we must try to uncover what she is experiencing, how she feels, and why she is doing certain things" (p. 307).

Studies on Teacher Perspective

Other studies have examined the elements that constitute the teacher's perspective and the contextual variables that influence perspective. Janesick's (1978) case study of a teacher in his tenth year of teaching "revealed that the teacher's classroom perspective was characterized by a concern for creating, maintaining, and restoring a group" (p. 7). It was this group perspective that was the basis for day-to-day classroom decisions and activities. Janesick found that other outside influences

such as directives from the district, principal, or parents had little or no effect on the classroom curriculum. "In this case study, the teacher's classroom perspective was essentially the curriculum of the classroom" (p. 22).

In her study of three beginning teachers, Everett-Turner (1985) described the teachers' experiences in order to interpret the "world of meaning the teachers gave to their own experience" (p. 307). Several themes emerged that were relevant to each of the three teachers in the study: "I'm a Real Teacher at Last," "Someone Cares," "Struggle for Control," "Uncertainty Can Lead to Distress," and "They Need Help, but What is Help?"

Feiman-Nemser and Floden (1986) included a discussion of some studies of teachers' perspectives on parents.

> Teachers see the ideal relationship with parents as one in which the parents support teacher practices, carry out teacher requests and do not attempt to interfere with teacher plans (Lightfoot, 1978; Lortie, 1975; McPherson, 1972). This exclusion of parents may be explained partly by teachers' desire to keep family affairs from interfering with students' performance in school. Some teachers do not want their expectations for children to be based on family background. (p. 509)

Clandinin (1985) attempted to divulge what she called the teacher's "personal practical knowledge" which "is knowledge which is imbued with all the experiences that make up a person's being. Its meaning is derived from, and understood in terms of, a person's experiential history, both professional and personal" (pp. 362-364). Through participant observation, she studied two teachers in their twelfth year of teaching because "the study of teachers' personal practical knowledge begins in the study of practice ... and is revealed through interpretations of observed practices over time and

given biographical, personal meaning through reconstructions of the teacher's narrative of experience" (p. 363). Clandinin described how Stephanie held an image of "classroom as home." She found that "the image of 'classroom as home' as it was expressed in the interviews and in the classroom subsumed various elements of the content of her personal practical knowledge" (p. 370). These studies suggest that naturalistic research using extensive observation of the natural classroom setting can provide insights into the global teaching experience.

Influences on Perspective

Some studies have included a discussion of what does and does not seem to influence how teachers think and act.

> Typically the socializing power of the university is described as weak compared with the competing norms of schools; the argument that the effects of university socialization are "washed out" by school experience is described (but not endorsed) by Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981). (Feiman-Nemser & Floden, 1986, p. 520)

Feiman-Nemser and Floden (1986) noted that "those entering teacher preparation have already had more interactions with experienced teachers than they may ever have again. Twelve or so years of elementary and secondary school provide opportunities to receive messages about what teachers do" (p. 520), thus suggesting that the influence of teachers' own schooling experience is strong. Fuller and Bown (1975) support the view that teachers' early experience as pupils influences their expectations about teaching and also their teaching behavior.

Craig (1985), in her study of a first-year drama teacher, identified six areas which influenced the teacher's perspective: space, time, program assigned, administration, staff, and students assigned. As did Everett-

Turner, Craig let her study speak to her regarding changes she could make in her curriculum and instruction course. Craig (1984) came to the realization through her research that teacher development is not just preservice or inservice teacher education but a continual process. She referred to Greenberg's research by noting that he

> reflected on the connections and tensions created by preservice, beginning teaching, and inservice. He suggests that we must see these steps as stages in one inclusive continuum and that "currently they are recognized more and more as developmental, integral, and complementary parts of a rational whole" (p. 259).

Other studies have suggested that teachers have had their perspectives influenced by preservice education, inservice education, and informal peer socializing. Lacey (1977) addressed the various ways beginning teachers become socialized into the established norms of their new school setting. Some teachers conform to the new expectations and practices, others are not convinced that the practices are for the best and comply with reservations, and other beginning teachers consciously try to effect change or reform. Fuller and Bown (1975) suggested that as education students move from methods courses to student teaching, they "change from a humanistic to a custodial approach, stressing bureaucratic order and control.... These changes may reflect a shift during student teaching toward the prevailing ethos of the public school" (pp. 41-42). Tabachnick (1980) reported a study of interns who changed from wanting warm relationships with students to desiring cooler, more distant relationships. He concluded that "public school staffs have an interest in legitimating their actions and keeping things the way they are" (p. 133). Similar research in the past by Iannacconne (1963) using interns' log books led to much the same conclusion. These studies speak to the need to

address the nature of the field experience and the influence it has on the developing perspective.

Newberry (1979) found that beginning teachers were usually influenced by teachers who taught the same grade level and had similar teaching styles to those of the beginning teacher. Further, Tabachnick and Zeichner (1985) suggested that perspectives developed during preservice teacher education would be influenced by peer socializing efforts during the first year of teaching and would only persist in individuals who had a mixture of support group, skill in building support from parents and students, and persistence. Tabachnick and Zeichner (1985) "support an interactive view of teacher socialization in which individual intent and institutional constraint both play a role in affecting a beginning teacher's entry into the teaching role" (p. 10). They proposed that preservice and inservice teacher educators would be well served by a better, more comprehensive understanding of how factors such as those described by these researchers operate. Such is the purpose of this study.

Methodology

Guba's (1981) concept of naturalistic research guided the planning of the methodology used. During the all-day workshop which preceded data collection, the research team discussed the six naturalistic practices described by Guba:

1. Prolonged engagement at a site, to overcome, so far as possible, distortions produced by a researcher's presence and to provide the researcher with the opportunity to test his or her own biases and perceptions, as well as those of his or her respondents.
2. Persistent observation, in order to identify pervasive qualities as well as atypical characteristics.

3. Peer debriefing, to provide the inquirer with the opportunity to test his or her growing insights and to expose himself or herself to searching questions.

4. Triangulation, whereby a variety of data sources ... [are used] to cross-check data and interpretations.

5. Collection of referential adequacy materials, whereby documents ... or "slice of life" data items are collected against which findings and interpretations can later be tested.

6. Member checks, whereby data and interpretations are continuously tested as they are derived with members of the various audiences and groups from which data are solicited.

The Teachers

The teachers contributing to this study were 12 elementary school teachers and two interns teaching at a total of eight different schools. Three of the teachers taught at two different schools while the others were at one school for the whole day. Of the 12 teachers, five were at the kindergarten level, two had grade one-two classes, one taught special education and grade three, one was at the grade four level, and two were at the grade five level. The two interns taught at several levels. The teachers varied in their teaching experience with two being interns, three being in the first, six in the second, one in the fourth, and two in the fifth year of teaching. (See Table 1, p. 23)

The Researchers

The team of researchers included six graduate students, seven faculty members from the Department of Elementary Education, and one faculty member from the Department of Educational Psychology of the University of Alberta. Each researcher collected the data for and wrote a case study of one teacher.

Throughout this report the case studies are used as the source of data in the form of quotes from the 14 researchers listed in Table 1, p. 23. An educational psychology graduate student and a project manager also formed part of the team. Although the latter two did not collect data or write a case study, they contributed to the project through participation in meetings, acting as second readers, and involvement in the preparation of the final report.

Despite their common involvement in education, the researchers each brought to the project a unique set of background experiences and perceptions, as described in their biographies in the case studies. As the researcher is the single most important instrument in collection of data in a naturalistic study, certain parameters were agreed upon by all while still allowing for individual style and approach. Each researcher was encouraged to take into consideration the nature of the context and the personality of the informant when determining how specific details could be handled (e.g. location of interviews, artifacts, and documents to collect).

Data Collection

Observation. This study was carried out over a six-month period and employed naturalistic research methodology. According to the criteria set out by Junker as referred to by Everett-Turner (1984), our role as researchers can be described as "observer as participant."

> Observer as participant. The observer's activities are made known at the outset, and are more or less publicly sponsored by people in the situation being studied. The role may provide access to a wide range of information and even secrets may be given to the fieldworker when he becomes known for keeping them, as well as for guarding confidential information. In this role the researcher might achieve maximum freedom to gather information but only at the price of accepting maximum constraints on his reporting. (p. 42)

There was minimal participation in the classrooms, varying from strict observation to limited involvement, such as interaction with the students and helping the teacher with clerical duties. The teachers were observed weekly as they taught, engaged in preparation or marking, prepared for Christmas concerts, supervised, consulted with other teachers, and interacted with children outside the classroom. The number of observations averaged 14 (range 11 to 18), with the length of each observation averaging three hours (range two to six hours).

Members of the team kept personal research journals and made field notes during the observation sessions. Routines, lesson content and presentation, teachers' interactions with students and others, room and school decor, and other pertinent details and activities were described. These notes were used for subsequent interviews. Researchers attempted to remain relatively unobtrusive while in the classroom in order that typical activities would be observed (Werner and Rothe, 1979, p. 25).

Naturalistic methodology involves a variety of techniques for data collection. Data from a number of sources (triangulation) is a method which ensures disciplined observing and reflecting (Guba, 1981; Janesick, 1978; Spradley, 1979). Documents collected during this study included a sample report card, notes home to parents, memos to teachers, samples of plans (year, unit, and lesson), materials collected from inservice, memos from other teachers, the school handbook, newsletters, and minutes from staff meetings.

Interviews. Interviews gave the teachers an opportunity to "describe their own life-world, their opinions, and acts, in their own words.... The interview [made] it possible for the subjects to organize their own

descriptions, emphasizing what they themselves [found] important" (Kvale, 1984, p. 173).

We interviewed the teachers weekly an average of 14 times (with the range being 11 to 18) between August and December 1986 for data collection and once or twice early in 1987 to ensure credible interpretations. In two cases the researchers also used interview data gathered from their two informants during the pilot study. Most interviews were about one hour long and were recorded on audiotape, transcribed by a secretary, and returned for review before the next week's interview.

The first interviews (other than the two cases noted above) took place before the beginning of the school year. The purpose of these first interviews was to collect teacher biographical material and information on teacher planning for the coming year, as well as to familiarize the teachers with the purpose of the study and introduce the researchers. Later interviews involved dialogue generated from the goals as set out in our proposal, aspects of perspective (see Note 1), field notes of documents, issues brought up by the teacher, pertinent themes that evolved spontaneously during the interview, and issues from previous interviews. Themes and patterns were noted as they emerged and were used as probe points in succeeding interviews (Newberry, 1979). The final interviews were conducted after the initial drafts of the case studies had been written. These final interviews were held in order that each researcher's interpretation could be checked by the teacher.

Several researchers have discussed how to conduct a sensitive interview (Everett-Turner, 1985; Guba, 1981; Janesick, 1978; Spradley, 1979). The transcripts from the interviews for this study indicated that

this was of importance to all researchers. Werner and Rothe (1979) noted that

> Dress and vocabulary need to be representative of the situation. Individuals more easily talk with those who appear to share interests, thereby making in-depth responses more likely.... Since the interview is itself a social interaction, sensitivity to familiar social conventions is necessary to relax the interviewee and gain in-depth information.... Sensitivity to annoyances, emotions, and excitements allow the ethnographer opportunities to change or reinforce questions. Ample time should be provided the interviewee to expand on matters relevant to him ... .
>
> Open-ended questions draw discussion, impose little restriction on respondents, present opportunity for conversational flexibility, and maximize expression. In addition, open-ended questions allow interviewer flexibility for greater probing with secondary questions which clarify answers and elicit further responses about peripheral points of interest. Although the interviewer brings several pre-defined questions, their timing is dependent on factors, such as interviewee nervousness, relationships between parties, and sensitivity to the moment. (p. 63)

Typical of the hospitality found in all schools was the fact that rooms were provided, when available, in order that the interviews would be private. An enrichment teacher was hired using project funds to replace each teacher in the classroom during the interview time in order that the teachers would not have to give up their own time for interviews. In most cases, the researchers formally interviewed the principal and talked informally with other staff members. Four researchers interviewed parents. Both of these practices added to the contextual description of the case study.

Project meetings. Project meetings played an important role in the methodology of this study. The initial meeting was both an orientation meeting and a training session. This all-day meeting familiarized new team members with the nature of the pilot project and the focus of the present

study. The works of three writers were used as the focus for this first meeting. Because of the use of naturalistic methodology, it was appropriate that some time be spent discussing Guba's (1981) article, "Criteria for Assessing the Trustworthiness of Naturalistic Inquiries." The importance of detailed field notes was brought forth by Wolcott's (1975) article. Some time was spent on a discussion of perspective which centered around a list of aspects of perspective adapted from Werner's (1977) study.

The regular project meetings before Christmas were held for two hours every other Friday and involved discussions about methods of data collection, interviews, and emerging themes. Guest researchers prominent in the field of anthropology attended two of these meetings. Mary Young visited our group meeting in late September, and her discussion reminded us to pay attention to the total context of the data collection situation. Magoroh Maruyama's visit encouraged us to dialogue with the teacher during interviews rather than just pose questions.

The regular project meetings after Christmas were held weekly for two hours or more and involved discussions about secondary data analysis and teacher validation of researcher interpretations. Jean Clandinin shared her research on teacher perspective during a January meeting. The discussion during her visit revolved around both the use of metaphors to help describe emergent themes and the need to communicate researcher interpretations with the teacher during and after analysis.

After the case studies were complete, discussions at project meetings involved the format and nature of the summary report. Lilian Katz, who had done much work in teacher education, assisted the group in focusing by asking questions pertinent to the meta-analysis involved in the final report.

Data Analysis

Primary data analysis began concurrently with data collection while the researchers were still in the field. This primary data analysis included listening to the tapes and reading the transcripts from previous interviews in order that questions about matters that were not fully explored during one interview could be followed up. Fellow members of the research team were involved at this time as second readers in order to suggest other avenues of questioning. Document analysis was also begun while the researchers were still in the field in order to determine each teacher's perspective on emerging themes.

During this time, continual involvement and sharing at project meetings, as mentioned, helped give direction to topics that might be further explored or initiated during interviews. The guest researchers played an important role at several of these project meetings.

On completion of the observations and interviews, final data analysis was started. This analysis involved a total review of all the data sources: field notes, the researchers' journals, transcripts of taped interviews, and documents. As Tabachnick (1981) suggested, "operational" categories were "avoided since these [would] distort the meanings of the event by forcing the action to fit pre-established categories" (p. 84). However, more loosely defined "orienting" and "empirical" categories invented in action, were used.

The initial analysis involved looking for themes as they seemed to be generated by the data. However, because a "case study is a study of a bounded system, emphasizing the unity and wholeness of that system, but confining the attention of those aspects that are relevant to the research problem at the time" (Stake and Easly, 1978), a second reading involved

looking for themes with particular reference to the goals which directed the study (see Purpose of the Study).

The third and subsequent readings involved trying to further reveal the teacher's perspective with the following general questions in mind:

1. What schemes of reference seem to guide acts?
2. What is the context in which the teacher is located?
3. How do thought and action seem to be oriented?

These general questions were further directed by more specific questions (see Notes pp. 19-22).

If statements, propositions, or issues were involved which centered about one recurring focus, that focus became the theme. As these themes were identified they were noted along with the evidence for their derivation. Themes were labeled, and when we found further evidence it was noted under the appropriate theme. Triangulation was used as suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967), evidence coming from the transcribed interviews, researchers' field notes, journal, or in documents collected. At first, many very specific themes emerged. These were later subsumed under more general themes. During this process, second readers added credibility to the study both by validating our interpretations of the data and by making us aware of some points of emphasis which might otherwise have been missed because of a particular perspective (Glazer, 1972).

In order to remain loyal to the methodology, it was necessary to constantly monitor and test our reactions and to search for negative instances to test and refine the themes being developed. Project meetings played an important role here as we tested our interpretations during discussions with other research team members.

> On establishing truth value, then, the naturalistic inquirer is most concerned with credibility of his findings and interpretations with the various sources (audiences or groups) from which data were drawn. The testing of credibility is often referred to as doing "member checks," that is, testing the data with members of the relevant human data source groups. (Guba, 1981, p. 10)

Therefore, after the initial analysis and first drafts of the case studies were written, the teachers were given a copy to read and were then interviewed to verify the interpretations as presented.

Notes

Specific Questions: Perspective

The following questions played an important role, during both data collection and data analysis. They address aspects of perspective and were derived from Werner's (1977) study, A Study of Perspective in Social Studies.

1. Schemes of Reference: (What schemes of reference seem to guide acts?)

   (a) Interests:

   What reasons are given for teaching?

   What are the motives?

   What commitments are there?

   What hopes and fears about teaching are evident?

   What problems and questions are considered important?

   What is considered relevant to teaching?

   Which events concerning teaching are considered relevant?

   What ideas about teaching are considered useful?

   What knowledge, tools, methods are used?

   (b) Presuppositions:

   What taken-for-granted assumptions are held about teaching?

   What philosophy of education is dominant?

   What psychology of education is dominant?

What religious or political beliefs dominate?

What ideals of the worth of teaching, the good teacher, the ideal teacher prevail?

How does one go about knowing about teaching?

(c) Approaches to teaching:

What stocks of knowledge are selected and utilized when considering teaching?

What methods are used to construct knowledge about teaching?

How does the teacher learn best about teaching?

What roles are assigned to teachers?

What interests do they have?

What commitments do they hold?

What specialized knowledge do they have?

2. Context: (What is the context in which the teacher is located?)

(a) Social Locations:

What is the teacher's socio-historical context?

What groups does the teacher belong to, sympathize with, or support?

What concepts, generalizations, signs, symbols, and recipes for action typify the teacher?

What biographical factors influence the view of the teacher? (Professional training, former experiences with teaching and students, philosophy, stocks of knowledge.)

(b) Reality Coordinates:

How does the teacher experience the world?

What sub-worlds does the teacher inhabit?

What conflicts are there in these sub-worlds?

What is the commonsense world in which the teacher seems to primarily exist?

What technical procedures, treatments, and rules does the

What theoretical worlds does the teacher use in teaching?

What use is made of fictional or illusory worlds?

What thought models does the teacher follow?

How does the teacher organize the school program?

What typologies, classification systems, and methods dominate the teacher's actions?

(c) Plausibility Structures:

How do teachers maintain the legitimacy and plausibility of their actions as teachers?

How do teachers legitimate their teaching actions?

How do they keep themselves isolated from alternative views?

How does what happens in the classroom support the teacher's views and reinforce the perspectives held?

Who does the teacher appeal to for support of his/her teaching?

How does the teacher maintain the view that his/her approach to teaching is natural and shared by others?

How are the conversation networks controlled through common definitions?

How is the teacher's commitment to teaching developed?

When the teacher strays from what is expected how is she/he brought back to reality?

How does the teacher defend what is done in the classroom over other ways of teaching?

How does the teacher react to criticism of what is done in the classroom?

3. Apprehending the World: (How do thought and action seem to be oriented?)

How is the teaching world ordered?

What contrasts, comparisons, relationships, and organizations are used in teaching?

How is the teaching world interpreted?

What seems to motivate the teacher?

Why do teachers do the things they do?

TABLE 1

THE TEACHERS

RESEARCHER	TEACHER	GRADE LEVEL	EXPERIENCE (in years)	PROGRAM MINOR
Blakey	Molly	K	1	Early Childhood
Chamberlin	Sarah	1-2	1	E.S.L.
Everett-Turner	Mark	5	0	Language Arts
Halabisky	Shirley	5	0.5	Movement
Kysela	Sharla	4	3	Individual Differences
Maaskant	Kim	K	0	Early Childhood
Massey	Kent	5	4	B.Ed../A.D.
Massing	Tracey	Intern	0	Computers
McNay	Sandra	K	0	Early Childhood
Mochoruk	Kare	K	1	Early Childhood
Sande	Donna	1-2	1	Moral Education
Scott	Cheryl	K	1	Early Childhood
Stephanson	Ann	Special 3	4	Special Education
Tucker	Jill	Intern	0	Learning Resources

II. INFLUENCES

The purpose of this section is to describe the influences which appeared to contribute to the individual perspectives on becoming a teacher. The data break down naturally into three main subsections: first, the period prior to entering a university program which would include influences such as parents, work and living experience, public schooling, religion, and community involvement; second, the period of university training and education which includes influences such as course work taken, practica (student teaching), work experience while in university, students, professors, elementary school personnel, family, and friends; and third, the period following graduation and as a certificated teacher which includes influences such as colleagues (principal and other school staff), inservice programs, the school and community environment, mandated program and curriculum guidelines, spouse, other influential family members, and friends.

Pre-University Period

Most of the teachers recalled early influences which caused them to consider, if not deliberately plan for, a teaching career. More often than not, family members and relatives, many of whom were teachers themselves, appeared to have a direct and significant influence on decisions to teach.

> Teaching runs in her blood: Her paternal grandmother, her father, her aunt and her uncle all became teachers. Cheryl has early recollections of wanting to be a teacher and of playing school with her friends. (Scott, p. 4)

> I used to go to my Mom's kindergarten quite a bit, and that's how I really got interested [in teaching]. (Massing, p. 3)

Another teacher mentioned that her parents were

> pleased she was going for something more ... they were happy I was doing something I really wanted to do, and they were behind me to support me which was really helpful. I needed that along the road. (Maaskant, p. 9)

Generally, teachers described their family as being extremely important not only in the decision of choosing the teaching profession but in influencing the kind of teacher they might become. Three teachers recalled growing up

> where everything was pretty wonderful, very wonderful.... Mom and dad were always encouraging and positive, and both were the type of people that were very involved and well liked by others. (Halabisky, p. 3, 4)

> My mom and dad always ... let me make choices even though they turned out to be bad ones.... If you start taking responsibility for yourself then you realize, "I'm the one that made this decision so I'm the one who lives with the consequences." So that's the way I was brought up so maybe that's why I think that way. (Chamberlin, p. 17)

> Sarah always uses courtesy words when speaking to students ... and good manners came from her parents.... Another parent model Sarah sees influencing her is giving children responsibility for their own choices as well as how to relate to other children. (Chamberlin, p. 17)

> I know coming from a family of four children, we were quite close in age, and my mother I'm sure had the same philosophy (as the university), that children are basically good because our house was the house that everyone came to play in when we were little ... I think because of that ... idea. We just had a lot of fun and had the freedom to do things and try things out that we couldn't do in other people's houses. (Blakey, p. 40, 41)

A statement typical of most of the teachers' feelings was:

> My dad taught us to be very positive and do the best you could (Stephanson, p. 8).

Indeed, all but one of the participants of the study expressed the positive influence of parents.

Associated with family upbringing was the aspect of religion. Some teachers mentioned that it often played a prominent role in the family.

> She was raised in a fairly strict Catholic home and Kare commented that "we had to do it right." (Mochoruk, p. 2)

Others attributed much of the kind of teacher they are to a "natural ability" which has been innate in them--a sort of predestination.

> I think I have a natural knack for teaching. I don't really have to think consciously of what to do.... It just seems to happen. (McNay, p. 17)

> Donna reports she felt destined to be a teacher.... She indicated how completely unsurprised her family was when she announced she was going to be a teacher. (Sande, p. 17)

What might be termed out-of-school experience seemed to be significant to the pre-university influences of these 14 teachers. Work experiences, social relationships, and volunteer work were highlighted in most cases.

> In grade 11 ... they asked me to coach competitive swimming.... So once I started working with children, I decided I wanted to do something working with children, and from there I checked out social work and teaching-- but teaching was my first choice all the way....I was camp counsellor, did some volunteer work for Uncles at Large, the Boys' and Girls' Club, working at the after school center. (Everett-Turner, p. 1)

One researcher seemed to capture much of what outside experiences entailed in referring to them as "non-formal education."

> She enjoyed her volunteer work in a hospital and babysitting when she was in her teens. She recalled the fun times she had as a child playing with younger children and organizing puppet shows. (Mochoruk, p. 2)

In other instances, work experience provided potential candidates with a background that encouraged a teaching career even as mature students.

> After working as a secretary for six years she became bored with the job and wanted a change. She had worked in the Faculty of Education.... "I loved the environment there," and decided she wanted to go into teaching. (Maaskant, p. 8)

Most participants in the study expressed satisfaction with their own school background.

> I enjoyed my schooling .... They had a lot of activities for the kids--different house leagues .... Junior high was good because of my friends ... and then high school was fun because ... I took physical education so there were a lot of different activities.... I was conscientious that way and worked hard .... In high school I took all the academic courses. (McNay, p. 14)

They also expressed recollections of school which affected their desire to become teachers. This was especially clear regarding teachers who modelled desirable attributes.

> I just loved my grade two teacher. She was really nice and I just loved being in her classes.... She was a warm and sensitive teacher who made you feel good about who you were. She was never sarcastic and I just really looked up to her. (McNay, p. 15)

> Well, when I think back on my elementary school days, I really enjoyed it. There were two teachers who made a big impact on me.... I think I strive to be like them .... Every learning experience was so positive ....I really enjoyed the learning that went on. (Maaskant, p. 17)

Classroom management techniques and attitudes toward control were also influential.

> In Sarah's recollections of school, the teacher was clearly the boss .... Sarah held these teachers in high esteem and decided early that she wanted to be a teacher. (Chamberlin, pp. 16)

From the reflections of these teachers, it appears that their pre-university experiences significantly influenced their choosing teaching as a career.

University Period

An especially interesting phase in the education of teachers occurs during their university days. University study involves a considered choice of career or general career pattern. University students who propose to teach may opt to enroll directly in a faculty of education, or they may choose to complete an undergraduate degree in some other faculty and then seek their teaching certification in an after-degree program. The bachelor of education (B.Ed..) program training for an elementary generalist is comprised of five

components: non-education courses, basic education courses, curriculum and instruction courses, practicum (or student teaching), and elective courses (see Section 73.2 of the University of Alberta Calendar 1987-88). Within this program, there is an elective component where each student selects a minor area of emphasis, taking three or four courses in a specific curriculum area such as early childhood education or reading.

Teachers were asked to reflect on their university days. The comments they made often related to the courses which comprised their program, the student teaching, related and unrelated work experiences, and the significant people who made a real difference during their becoming certificated teachers. Courses in the undergraduate education program were an enigma. As seen by the students they are at best good and too often very poor. As a part of the bachelor of education degree program, they ranked far behind the practicum (student teaching) component as the most valuable aspect of undergraduate study.

The value of the non-education courses was recognized by Sandra as important to the generalist program, but the vast majority of teachers in the study complained of the very impersonal nature of large non-education sections.

> [In the] first year there were a lot of courses that I don't think really helped me for teaching the young kids--your histories and your biologies--but that is something you have to do. I didn't really enjoy those ones too much, but I did enjoy the ones in child development, psychology.... I don't think my first years ... gave me a lot of information for teaching, but as the years went on we got more and more into it.... It answered quite a few of my questions about setting up programs and stuff. (McNay, p. 18)

> The courses outside the Education were--I mean General Arts type things and Sociology, the classes were usually very big. You never knew your prof. and there were hardly any papers, and the tests were just multiple choice that go into the computer. The prof.

> talked with a mike, and I frankly didn't enjoy those, but you have to go through those, there's no other way around, but I don't find I use any of that, not consciously that I know of. I can honestly say that in most--I can't think of any course outside of what I had to take [in] Education that had anything to do with teaching. (Halabisky, p. 22)

Mixed reviews were received when discussing the basic education course components. Some suggested they helped develop a personal philosophy, while others said they were too detailed or theoretical.

> Tracey could name a few university classes that she felt had been particularly useful to her, including one on Reading for Early Childhood, a Curriculum and Instruction course that involved assembling a teaching file, and an Educational Foundations course where students were encouraged to develop their own philosophies of teaching. She had enjoyed the practicality of the modules. (Massing, p. 4)

The curriculum and instruction courses were a mixed bag, and their influence appeared to be highly dependent on their instructor. The junior curriculum and instruction courses offered in nine-credit packages were largely seen as discrete parts rather than an integrated whole (Sande, pp. 20-23).

Some teachers expressed particular satisfaction with the curriculum and instruction component of their program. Courses which were seen as "practical" and, where instructors shared their personal experiences, were the most highly valued.

> It was very valuable for Kim when assignments in curriculum courses started to "actually deal with children." (Maaskant, p. 12)

> When I say [I want] practical ideas, I don't expect them to give me a list of things to do in the classroom because that you get when you are here, and there's all these idea books, so I don't mean that. I just mean ... [it's great to know some techniques and a general approach]. (McNay, p. 20)

The elective component of the program, comprised largely of the minor area, also received some mixed reviews. The exception was the Early Childhood

Education Minor which was generally highly regarded. Cheryl's classmates in the Early Childhood Education Minor became very important to her in both a supportive and an educational sense.

> Through some fluke a whole class of us had all the same courses, starting in our second year, and so we went from room to room, and we got to know one another really well, and we became just like a family.... You didn't feel like you were in the midst of 25,000 people. (Scott, p. 8)

Two teachers were particularly unhappy because they had failed to obtain a place in their first choice of minor and stated that this caused them great disappointment (Massing p. 4; Sande p. 24).

Clearly, the practicum component was seen as the most significant aspect of the teacher's university career.

> The final practicum proved to be a rich source of practical ideas which had not been covered in university courses. She found the final practicum challenging, demanding, and meaningful. (Tucker, p. 11)

One teacher summarized the feelings of most of her colleagues by saying, "my practicum was super."

> Well, the first one I spent in a grade two room and then in a Junior High ... grade eight. And that was helpful because I knew definitely that I was to be in elementary so in that regard that was helpful. And in the second, I spent my time in a grade one room, and I really enjoyed that. And then my third phase was spent in a grade six room, and I really enjoyed that. I was really blessed with a lot of good learning experiences. I think I learned more in my practicum than I've learned in any other of those topics or subjects or courses. You learn so much by just getting the practical experience ... getting right in there. Things that aren't approached in the courses, like how you fill out a register. That I learned in my first year, you know. You're just not taught that at a university, but it's something that you have to do. (Sande, p. 23)

Even with the overwhelming endorsement of the practicum, some cautions and concerns were expressed; it is important to "be sure" cooperating teachers are good.

> [Ann] feels that some people in the teaching profession are not "really interested in what they are doing ... that they seem to be there for the paycheck and not for the kids." (Stephanson, p. 31)

Some of the teachers expressed opinions related to jobs they may have held during their university study which contributed toward their perspective on teaching. One teacher who had been supporting herself as a secretary decided to do some daycare work in order to gain more experience with children.

> I learned a lot about children and what they can do, some of their interests, because I haven't really been around children in that kind of environment, so it was really neat to see.... I spent a lot of time with them. I would help them in some of the activities. I would often read books to them, read a story, get involved in their play.... I enjoyed it. (Maaskaant, p. 12)

Others felt that their work as playground recreation program leaders helped them come to know children better (Blakey, Massing, Mochoruk, Sande). Some of the teachers specifically named university faculty members as major contributors toward shaping their careers (McNay, Tucker). These teachers had professors who shared practical experiences, took the time to give encouragement, were especially inspiring, or had a warmth of personality combined with a knowledge of content and children which clearly radiated professional commitment toward teaching teachers to teach children.

The influence of university study cannot be denied. However, the level of the influence is by no means constant, as some teachers speak highly of their university program while others are less enthused. For most of the teachers, the single most significant component of the program was student teaching.

Post-University Period

As would be expected, the teachers and interns in the study expressed

strong and varied opinions regarding the influence of their teaching assignments, especially those in their first few years. Prevalent among the influences mentioned were community, principal, colleagues, curriculum, inservice training, and spouse.

The unique school setting in which teachers found themselves provided the environment for skill application. The teachers quickly became aware of the importance of the social setting. Was the school new or well established? Was the area comfortable, upper-class suburban, or transient, low-income inner city? Were the parents uninvolved with their children's schooling or actively participating in the community and school activities?

Of the influences referred to, none seemed to be more pervasive and timely than that of the principal. A common event for newer teachers and interns was to turn to the principal for help.

> The principal's emphasis upon family involvement resulted in my letter writing activities in language arts. He feels that it's vitally important to have parents involved in the school. (Kysela, p. 17)

Sandra saw the principal as her "greatest ego booster."

> He has been nothing but the biggest supporter of my career. He is the best thing for my ego and is doing all he can to support me. He did not pressure me into things or ask things of me that made me feel burdened or overwhelmed. (McNay, p. 45)

The principal's job was seen as very broad but was well summarized by Donna who said,

> She is sometimes hard to get hold of, or you don't know whether you should interrupt.... She is always there to talk to .... So if you can catch her she is always there to answer questions and give ideas. (Sande, p. 50)

Closely related to the effect of the principal seems to be that of one's peers. Collegial relationships seem to be significant to teachers.

> So I have been talking to these teachers here because they have a better understanding of the students and

> the types of problems ... my students have for instance at home. (Kysela, p. 15)

Fellow teachers are clearly seen as very significant factors in the life of the classroom teacher.

> Almost weekly Donna would refer to ideas which were so freely shared by Helen Grant. Ms. Grant had the special talent of offering ideas with no strings attached. She would indicate what she had done or planned to do and offer to facilitate Donna's involvement. The sense of caring was at the highest professional level, but led Donna to say, "I don't know what I would do without her." Some of the items she shared were personal insights into the needs of children she knew, ideas for Thanksgiving, Hallowe'en, Remembrance Day and Christmas, access to appropriate films, invitations to join her on field trips and advice on special art projects. (Sande, p. 50)

For each of the new teachers in the study the between teacher networking was significant as it related to their comfort in the school socially and professionally.

Curriculum guides and programs of study had varied effects on the teachers in the study. As might be expected, teachers at the beginning of their careers tended to adhere to the suggested curricula.

> I use strictly all the curriculum books and I use everything and kind of go right in order until I know it.... I want to be safe and secure first, and then I'll go and try to experiment. (Massey, p. 20)

Nevertheless, one of the researchers noted how the teacher diverged from the set curriculum to cover issues and topics which were more pertinent to the students' daily lives and also of substantial interest to them. The teacher commented:

> The curriculum guides--I think maybe I have looked at them once in three years .... A lot of what is in the curriculum is not interesting; it is not relevant to their lives at all. (Kysela, p. 18)

At least two of the participants in the study mentioned the influence of their spouses.

> With the help of my husband ... I am learning to deal with their [the childrens'] situation. (Tucker, p. 28)

> Her commitments were extended to include her husband and their life together. She knew that she would have to create a new balance between her home and school life. (Blakey, p. 2)

Discussing problems, plans, and aspirations with a spouse is mentioned frequently. Several teachers had married recently and felt the need to balance their professional role with their responsibilities as a husband or wife.

Inservice training would appear to be a significant influence on beginning teachers anxious to receive practical help and suggestions for their teaching. Most frequently mentioned was the teacher effectiveness program which has been widely used in the local school system during the past few years.

> Effectiveness teaching, it was excellent! They suggested a lot of techniques .... I just did it because they said try it.... I tried it, and it does work. (Halabisky, pp. 21-22)

Other teachers mentioned the many options available.

> Many other inservice opportunities as well as the variety of choice were suggested as being useful. (Maaskant, p. 46)

There was a general feeling expressed that inservice training was most helpful because it could be referenced immediately to actual teaching situations.

For the new teachers their post university period has been far shorter than their pre-university and shorter or equal to their university days. All have related the significant impact each phase has had upon their careers. Almost without exception, the post-university period (including the classroom teaching of their current appointment) has been the most crucial.

III. PERSPECTIVES: BEING A TEACHER

The fundamental analysis of teachers' activities in the classroom involves, in this study, an examination of the perspectives which seem to affect their decision making and judgments. In the context of the current study, the views of perspectives have been synthesized into a series of beliefs, actively structured, which have affected the decisions of the teachers. These beliefs have emerged from a thematic analysis of the teachers' actions and decisions and their explanations and discussions with the researchers regarding these actions and decisions (see Methodology as described in the Introduction to the Study). Two examples taken from the case studies will exemplify the ways in which perspective was identified and delineated in this project.

Shirley's Perspective

Shirley's perspective, developed through the thematic analysis, is described in the case study as follows:

> Who is Shirley? How does she see her teaching world? How does she act in this world? If I can open doors for the reader to see the answers to these questions, I will have enlightened the reader regarding Shirley's perspective; for perspective is a dynamic sort of thing always affecting and being affected by the person, her perspectives and her actions. Is it possible, though, to take snapshots in order to capture the perspective at given moments and compare these snapshots to see which elements of perspective remain fairly constant over time and which are ever evolving? That is the prime purpose of this study, to describe the perspective of a beginning teacher.
>
> The elements of a perspective are interwoven. It is difficult to separate them as they do not form disjoint sets; actions that seem to fall into one category are often easily used to verify another category. Perhaps elements and categories are not the right words. The word theme is perhaps a more suitable word since the boundaries of themes are not as clearly delineated. I have attempted to describe Shirley's perspective using several different themes. Some of these themes evolved because of the kind of person Shirley is; others have evolved because of the nature of the questions I asked her during our dialogue. (Halibisky, p. 8)

In a somewhat different manner, a vignette from a second case study provides a slightly different framework for the analysis of Cheryl's perspectives.

Cheryl's Perspective

A second researcher provided this description:

> In the last section we looked in considerable detail at the many influences and circumstances which have acted together to shape the beginning teacher, Cheryl. Like a piece in a jigsaw puzzle each small experience has little meaning by itself. Yet, when combined with many other experiences a complete picture emerges--a meaningful whole which is always greater than the sum of its parts.
>
> Human beings are far more complex than jigsaw puzzles, yet I think the analogy is helpful. Still, the idea of a completed teacher is illusory because people are continuously changing and modifying their ideas. Yet we can begin to understand how, over a period of time, many and different influences come to bear on every individual. We pass them all through the filters of our previous experiences, accepting some, rejecting others. All the time we are growing as a person, and our perspective--our view of the world--changes accordingly.
>
> It would be extremely naive on the researcher's part to believe that every part of the puzzle has been revealed, even for this moment in time. It would also be naive to believe that I can begin to offer a definitive analysis of Cheryl's perspective as a beginning teacher. Rather, I submit that the task is impossible. The best we can do is look at the influencing factors, then at the teacher in action in order to catch the essence of her perspective. In the next section we look at the teacher in action, as a decision maker, for we believe that actions can reflect a person's perspective more clearly than words.
>
> The researcher observed the teacher's behaviors in the classroom. When there was any doubt about the meaning of the actions (as often there was), he asked for explanation. During the course of the observations, three themes emerged: self-actualization, school routines, and curriculum issues. These themes are very significant because they represent a coming together of Cheryl's past, her present, and her future--her beliefs, her struggles, and her desires. These themes reveal the leading edge of her struggle as influencing factors confronting the world of teaching. Overriding these three themes is one single image which unites them and best describes the essence of Cheryl--Choices. I believe it is through examining these themes that we will come closest to understanding Cheryl's perspectives. (Scott, p. 37)

Confirmatory evidence for congruent use of the concept of perspective can be seen in the two descriptions of perspective cited here. Werner (1977) has suggested that perspective is irreversible, cumulative, unfinished, and dialectical. Each of these features can be seen in the descriptions given and seem to characterize the 14 researchers' approaches to the analysis and elucidation of their teachers' perspectives. As we sifted through the studies looking for "I believe, I think, or I feel" statements, it soon became obvious that there were distinct clusters of beliefs. The problem which this posed was how far to refine the statements. How does one convey the sense of consensus that seemed to exist among the teachers without sacrificing individual expression?

In this section of the report, seven beliefs characterizing teachers' perspectives are presented with supporting evidence from specific case studies: teachers as self, teaching situation, society, parents, children, how to teach, and what to teach. These beliefs represent the complexity and interrelated nature of teacher perspectives as well as the active, changing, developing nature of these beliefs. This section will also examine the teachers' decisions influenced by these beliefs. This section concludes with an assessment of the apparent contradictions.

Beliefs and Decisions

Beliefs About Self as Teacher: That's Me

There are differences and similarities in the perspective of the 14 teachers in this study related to their views of themselves as teachers. These views affect the decisions they make in the classroom and some of their behaviors as teachers. This section outlines how teachers' views of themselves influence their perspective of teaching.

For many of the teachers, classroom practices are often more closely connected to perceptions of themselves than to specific, acquired knowledge. When asked why they did things a certain way, many teachers would reply, "That's just me" or "That's the way I am." McNay noted:

> Warmth, sensitivity, and affirmation are elements of character which Sandra values in teachers, and if she possesses these attributes herself, she takes no particular pride in them. She would say, "That's just the way I am." (p. 16)

The influence of these "personal characteristics" affects the nature of each teacher's classroom. When talking about why she arranges her room in a certain way, Molly said, "That's my nature. I like things organized" (Blakey, interview, 1986/11/27, not in case study).

These images of self are intertwined with the teachers' views of the programs, and criticism of their classroom practices are often interpreted personally. A father's questions about his child's first report card left Sandra feeling, "This guy was sort of questioning me ... and I felt threatened just because he was ... well, he was putting down the program, which is like ... a put down to me" (McNay, p. 42). Kare reflected a similar feeling when she said, "I'm confident until someone gets me down, then I lose it for the whole day" (Mochoruk, p. 5).

Many of these teachers maintained they learned about themselves through their teaching. Donna felt this project would help her to learn more about herself.

> As you ask me these questions, I'm really having to think and so it's going to mean a lot to me. I'm going to get to know myself perhaps a little bit better in terms of teaching and what's my philosophy, and so I'm looking quite forward to it. (Sande, p. 44)

Cheryl believed she was moving toward her personal goal of "self actualization as a teacher" when her children grew in their understanding of

the world. Donna noted that she was moving from being "wrapped up" in herself as a teacher to being more "in touch with the children." Comments such as being "an organized person" or a "calm sort of person" were indicative of the views of images some of these teachers had of themselves. These images, in turn, influence the nature of their classroom and style of teaching: Jill, who had an image of herself as a traditionalist, would have a different approach than Kare who said, "I'm pretty creative so I want children to be able to let their creativity come out" (Mochoruk, p. 20). These teachers seemed to have an image of "the kind of person I am" and could describe themselves both professionally and personally in relation to their views of themselves.

One interesting variation on teachers' views and descriptions of themselves was Kent who worked at creating a personal image which would not reflect his profession. Massey noted that Kent's black beard, along with casual clothes, gave a relaxed impression of one who "would not be out of place in an ad for a new sports car" (p. 14).

> Curiously, the beard is important to how Kent views himself. In his mind it sets him apart from other elementary teachers and helps avoid the "I am a teacher stamp" which he feels so many of them seem to carry. He notes, "I think you can pick them out in a crowd."... The beard helps him avoid such labeling. "I am conscious of the beard when I go to a bar or to a restaurant or to a play .... I don't know .... Some days I think I am going to shave it off ... but if I do I am probably going to just fit right in like with the typical teacher. At least now I walk in many places and people don't know what I do." (Massey, pp. 4-5)

Several of the teachers maintained that to be an educator one has to be "born with certain qualities." Some teachers said they had a "knack" with children, while others said that teaching had to be "part of you." The idea of a special "inborn" quality was described in an indirect manner when the teachers talked about "always wanting to be a teacher" or "knowing since

grade two" that teaching was their chosen profession. For some, the desire to teach was influenced by a "special teacher" they had as a child; the teacher was someone they wanted to "be like" so they would often revert to practices they remembered the teacher using with them. The image of being a "born teacher," coupled with their own experience as a learner, seemed to influence how these teachers evaluated themselves. For example, Cheryl, a second-year teacher, felt she was moving toward her goal of being a "master teacher" whereas Jill, one of the interns, did not see herself as a teacher.

Many of the teachers in this study identified closely with their profession and developed a new understanding of themselves through their teaching; their teaching also seemed to develop along the lines of the ideas they held about themselves. The views they have of themselves as teachers were often influenced by their beliefs about their school or teaching situation.

Beliefs About the Teaching Situation: Plant Power

The teaching situation and patterns of socialization, although important for all the teachers in this study, were most pervasive for the interns and the teachers working in two schools. The term "plant power" best describes the impact schools had on the teachers in this study and the unique power the schools held for the two intern teachers and the three kindergarten teachers who were each working in two schools.

A plant can be defined as a growing, living organism or as a static institutional setting. These two images of a plant were reflected in teachers' perceptions of their school environments and has an impact on their image of themselves and their classroom practices. The socialization of teachers into their "plant" was influenced by the nature of their relationship with colleagues, their teaching situation, and the location of

their school. The schools were situated in various areas ranging from upper-middle class or professional communities to inner-city areas where many families were dependent on support from social service agencies. Although the nature of the school community did influence the teachers' perceptions, the "power of the plant" seemed to guide how they adapted to the situation.

Most of the teachers perceived their "plant" as a warm, supportive environment which provided direction for their professional growth. In some situations, however, the support and direction may have been too strong as some teachers felt that they had to teach in a specific way because of the "school image." Sarah noted:

> Like this school, it's really a high profile. Like there were people coming in nearly every week observing teachers. So I thought, "They gotta be good.... So I did exactly what everyone else was doing." (Chamberlin, p. 27)

Several of the teachers commented on how willing teachers were to share their resource files and to "help out" if necessary. This support usually made them feel "part of the group" and they welcomed the interaction. However, Sarah was somewhat intimidated by the staff's willingness to share because she felt she had "nothing to give them" in return. In a similar vein, Ann said,

> My first year I wasn't really willing to admit that I was having problems. I thought, "I've got to handle this, I'm a teacher." You can't go to the principal and say, "I don't know what to do with these kids," that kind of thing. So, maybe ... I was too proud or scared to ask for help, in a lot of ways. (Stephanson, p. 35)

Some of the teachers worked with their colleagues as "team planners" at a specific grade level or in the development of activities for "cross-grade" teaming (e.g. a grade five and a primary class working together on an activity). Teachers who felt they were part of a team seemed more willing to

turn to their principal or other teachers for support if they were having specific problems or concerns.

Three kindergarten teachers (Kim, Cheryl, and Kare) who were each teaching in two different schools had different views of the "plant." Kim and Cheryl felt they were part of the staff in one of their schools but perceived themselves as "outsiders" in the other. Kare initially felt that she "belonged" in one school but eventually drew back and said, "It's a real pain being at two schools" (Mochoruk, p. 19). Unfortunately, Kare never felt completely at home in either setting. At first glance it would appear that the variation in comfort level was related to the nature of the school environment. However, there were other teachers in our study in each of the three schools who did not experience these feelings of isolation. It seems that this "distancing" from the school was rooted in the teachers' ability to work in an intensive, intimate manner in two settings. All three teachers noted that the policies and expectations differed in each school and that adjusting to these differences took a great deal of their emotional and mental energy. Thus, in addition to working with 40 to 50 children and their families every day for five days a week, these teachers were expected to develop relationships with the staff and administrators of two different schools. This would be a difficult task for an experienced teacher and is perhaps an unrealistic expectation for a novice.

The interns were in a different teaching situation. They were not based in just one class; therefore, their perspectives need closer scrutiny. Tracey and Jill had some similar and some different views of their experience as an intern.

For Tracey, the internship was an opportunity to see different styles of teaching and to try out ideas.

> I know I pick out things I like in teachers and I try them to see if they work for me .... I think I'm just at the point where I think most beginning teachers are-- trial and error--"Does this work for me?" (Massing, p. 22)

Tracey spent most of her time with Janine, the teacher in a grade two classroom with an integrated, language-based curriculum. The tables were clustered in an informal manner and the children were free to move around the room or work in the hallways. Because they held similar philosophies, Tracey felt comfortable with Janine and saw her as a model. She integrated Janine's model into her own style of teaching, which she used when she was working in the grade three and six classrooms.

> The first thing I think of is the way Janine would do it. Because I kind of role model myself after the way [she teaches], because I think she has a good approach to classroom management, I know I do a lot of things like that.... I guess I've more or less developed my own way of thinking too, and that's what I carry in both of their classes. (Massing, p. 22)

Thus, although they held similar philosophies, Tracey felt she was learning from Janine, and that without the internship she would have started her teaching in a very different style. She said, "My class would be much more traditional because I don't think I could have handled being a first-year teacher and teaching the way Janine does" (Massing, p. 22).

Jill seemed to view the internship as a way of getting feedback on what she was already doing rather than an opportunity to model others or to venture into new areas.

> I don't really watch her. I listen to her a lot. And whenever I have a problem or something that I'm wondering about, I mention it to her. Or I'll just mention something that happens in class, and she gives me feedback on what she did and I just take it from there .... But I don't really watch her. But I definitely rely on her feedback quite heavily. (Tucker, p. 22)

Tucker also noted, "Otherwise, Jill feels most of what she does is a result of her own personality and not directly related to any identifiable external

influences" (p. 14). Jill was most comfortable in one of the primary classrooms in which the desks were arranged in five rows and the teacher's approach to learning was usually didactic.

> We both [she and the supervising teacher] are traditionalists in the sense that desks are straight and the kids have to listen and they are made to be held accountable, and it is a sort of lecture, and we expect responses; we expect them to listen. (Tucker, p. 18)

Thus this teacher did not seem to be a model for Jill. Rather, she was a teacher with a similar philosophy and style.

Although Jill and Tracey differed in terms of how the internship affected their professional growth, they had some similar views about being assigned to various teachers. Jill's teaching assignment did not allow her to remain in one classroom for an extended period. She felt, "sort of cheated. It would be really nice, of course, to have my own room.... And then I can put more things up, because I'm sharing the room as it is" (Tucker, p. 14). Tracey, on the other hand, stayed with the grade two class for some time before she began teaching in other classrooms. When talking about the grade two class she would use terms such as "my room" and "my kids." Massing noted that "Tracey had these feelings of responsibility and ownership about the grade two class and when her time began to be divided among the three classes she experienced some conflicts" (p. 32).

Both Tracey and Jill felt "cheated" when they had to work with more than one class and they both felt a stronger attachment to one teacher than to the others. In this sense, their experience of "having to be in so many places" was similar to that of the kindergarten teachers who were teaching in two schools. Both groups felt a stronger attachment to one setting (school or classroom) than to another and both found it difficult to relate to too many individuals.

The images teachers had of themselves were reflected in their behavior in the classroom, while the teaching situation influenced how they reacted to their teaching experience. These images and reactions, in turn, were sometimes related to their beliefs about society.

Beliefs and Decisions About Society

Although not all of the cases researched for this study make explicit reference to the teachers' perspectives on society, it is apparent from reading the case studies that teachers base decisions and actions on beliefs which embody their individual perspectives of society. The teachers expressed themselves both verbally and by their actions, and through this expression they revealed a variety of perspectives, values, and beliefs. Indeed, beliefs about society are implicit in the institution of schooling, and teachers function in schools in ways commensurate with their beliefs. Several of the teachers talked at length about the ways they teach their students to function in and cope with society. The following is a portrayal of teachers' perspectives about society as drawn from the case studies.

The views and beliefs expressed by the teachers in these 14 case studies range from the society's role in the school to the school's role in society. Molly expressed the belief that societal expectations influence the role of the teacher, whereas Sarah felt that the school's function was to help shape society (Blakey; Chamberlin). Both Ann and Cheryl expressed an intent to influence parents' attitudes about the role of the school and the teacher in socializing children (Scott; Stephanson). A recurring theme was the belief that the teacher's responsibilities include preparing students to live in their society. We feel that most, if not all, of the teachers would agree with Ann's sentiment, when she stated:

> If I go through and teach them the curriculum and yet they don't know how to act in the playground or in society, then I don't feel like I've done my job. I feel that my job is to prepare them for life in society even though they're at a grade three level or a grade one level. And so all those kinds of things are to me as important as the curriculum.... So I guess, basically I think that's a huge part of our job. Years ago it maybe wasn't, and I very much believed you went to school, you learned your A, B, C s, you went home, and you learned everything else at home. It's not like that, not at all. (Stephanson, p. 23)

Further to this view was the belief expressed by Kare and Sarah, who suggested that school and home may sustain different social values, but that most parents would agree with the teacher that schools have a specific role in teaching children appropriate social values and skills (Chamberlin; Mochoruk).

A common notion in the case studies is that a teacher's responsibility includes helping students to become active, contributing members of society. This includes developing abilities to function on a daily basis. A view held by several of the teachers is that the prescribed curriculum to which they are bound does not provide an opportunity to help students cope with daily living, that events occur when the curriculum must take second place to teaching students acceptable social norms. Kent took time out of his scheduled program to help students deal with problems at home (Massey). Sarah found she was spending considerable time teaching "just things that they're going to need to get through life" (Chamberlin, p. 56). Ann acknowledged:

> I think just a big part of their life is going to be their ability to get along with people.... So I think I wanted to make sure that they have the social skills that are going to help them fit into whatever it is they do.... It is their social skills that I think is going to make it or break it for them. (Stephanson, p. 25)

Beliefs and Decisions About Parents

Teachers' statements about and interactions with parents illustrate their beliefs in terms of parents. In the following discussion the teachers' belief statements are considered from two foci. The first concerns beliefs about parents which influence teachers' decisions concerning their students, the curricula they teach, and the methods employed in teaching. In other words, the teachers maintain that beliefs about parents influence their decisions concerning the students and what and how to teach. The second focus reviews teachers' beliefs about parents which influences the teachers' decisions about and interactions with parents.

Beliefs About Parents Influencing Decisions About Students.

The teachers' statements about parents and the home environment range from positive to negative, and the case studies seem to suggest that the socioeconomic status of the family and the level of parental involvement in the school might have a bearing on teacher views. Teachers feel that parents are very important to the child's education and see the home environment as exerting considerable influence over the attitudes and demeanor of children. Teachers feel they benefit from an understanding of the daily background influencing each pupil. The value of this understanding was made apparent to Cheryl when a keynote speaker at a conference suggested:

> You have to go into the family, into the home, and see the situation; and you have to stop looking at it through middle-class eyes and look at it through their eyes and see what education, what self-esteem they have, what kind of clothing they have, you know, and also the feelings they may have about school and about stepping across the street onto your turf, you know, off their own. (Scott, p. 30)

When teachers shift their views of the family context "by stepping across the street," they gain greater insight into parents' perspectives and students' lives.

Teachers believe parents have an important influence on their children, although not all of the influence is positive. In some instances, the educational background and attitudes of parents toward school is seen to be a detrimental influence, even when parents are merely indifferent to school and/or education. In one school, the principal impressed upon his staff that, "It's vitally important to have parents involved in the school" (Kysela, p. 11). Subsequently, activities were implemented to increase their involvement.

At the same time, many parents were seen to have a negative influence on their children (Chamberlin; Kysela; Massey; Scott; Stephanson; Tucker). The negative impact parents have on children seems to stem from the parents' educational background and current socioeconomic status. In several of the cases, teachers talk about parents' attitudes and how these affect students; their comments suggest their beliefs about parents are influenced by their perceptions of the home situation. In one case, Kent talked about a student's family. The father was in jail; there was uncertainty as to the whereabouts of the mother; the children were taken into custody and placed in a foster home. As a result the student reacted in the classroom, "striking out at <u>everyone</u>, I mean, just don't come near me or I'm going to hit you" (Massey, p. 2). To this teacher, the most important focus became the student's state of mind: "Let's just try to ease the pain" (Massey, p. 2).

Cheryl expressed frustration that parents value school no more than they would custodial care.

> To the parents [school] is not important; their kids being in school is not important. "Take them to school, I have a few hours free time; you know, I just make sure I pick them up because, if not, the school will be bugging me to come and pick them up." That's the attitude. (Scott, p. 28)

Some teachers feel parents influence their children's attitudes which, in turn, are reflected through the children's in-school behavior. This point is starkly highlighted by a comment from Ann when she quipped,

> You give kids all these things and you want them to be proud, but they don't want to take them home and why should they? Nobody at home is proud of them. (Stephanson, p. 12)

The students exhibit traits that begin at home and which originate with parents. Sharla confirms this when she talks about the support students get at home.

> If you have an organized life and a structured life, you learn to live with structure, and these students certainly don't have that. Um, keeping your notebooks neat and tidy and having things in order is partly pride, being proud of your work, and you know you learn that from people being proud of you. You feel good about yourself so people help build your esteem, and I don't think the parents at home are conveying that to their children. (Kysela, p. 29)

In each case, the teacher sees parents as a negative or detrimental influence on the child and, consequently, a force to be countered in the classroom. These teachers indicate that part of their responsibility includes creating student awareness that the world outside the home is not necessarily the same as at home.

> Because of the lives these kids have at home, there just seems to be so much more of a need for those social skills and to provide a nice environment for them--a safe environment where they learn that fighting isn't the way of life. (Stephanson, p. 25)

> It took me nearly a whole year to get it through these little boys' head that, yes, they were valuable human beings, and that they could do a lot of things if they put their minds to it and all this. (Chamberlin, p. 55)

The belief that parental influence can be negative is not limited to the teachers in one school. Sarah began her first year by experiencing quite the eye-opener in this regard,

> I had a couple of kids that thought they were no good for anything. And when I met their parents, like, you know

> where it's coming from--home. [The parents said things] like they're no good, they're stupid, and they're dumb and they're never going to amount to anything, and they can't do a lot of things so don't even bother trying and blah, blah, blah.... I don't think I realized how much the home has an impact on ... like I guess because I came from such a supportive family, that I thought everyone was like that, you know. Like my friends, they all seemed to have the same, and then when you see kids like this, and then you meet their parents you think, "Holy smokes. Look what I'm up against here." They're only in school five hours a day, and this is what they're having at home, like ... at times I think ... why do I even try? I'm not getting through to these kids. (Chamberlin, p. 55)

It seemed to some teachers that parents have such a significant influence over their children that the teachers sometimes feel overwhelmed by the odds they face.

The discussion of teachers' beliefs about parents and the influence they have over the thoughts and attitudes of their students to this point paints a negative side of our teachers' perspectives; but there is another side. Apparent in the 14 case studies are the teachers' positive attitudes and beliefs about parents and the relationships among home, school, and teacher.

The teachers in this study spoke of the positive influence parents can have on their children, both through encouraging students and teachers, and through personal involvement in school. Molly said that the support she received from parents made her job much easier (Blakey). Mark received the compliment, "What a difference a teacher makes," (Everett-Turner, p. 21) from a mother enthused by her child's attitude. Massing indicates there is extensive parental support at Sunnyview School and that Tracey encouraged a parent's classroom visits, "because that's one thing about this class--whenever they want to come in they can.... We have a lot of parents who are willing to come in and help--which is nice" (Massing, p. 31). These are but

a few of the comments the teachers made about the positive influence of parents.

In Cheryl's inner-city classroom, where students come from disadvantaged home situations, the potentially positive impact of parents is recognized. Even though Cheryl takes time out of the school day to deal with problems from the home that students bring with them into class, she desires parental input into the education of the children.

> Some of the kids are abused and so if your hand comes towards their face, you know, they flinch. To them it's a scary thing. So I am aware of it now, and I try and maybe [put a hand] on a shoulder, or I get right down to their level and put my arm around them so they get used to my touch being a non-threatening thing. (Scott, p. 51)

> So, for me then, it went from, "Okay, you don't want to do any work.... I can understand that, and you're hurting so much ... so let's just get you through the day." I didn't even bother with the school work. (Massey, p. 2)

In each classroom these teachers appraised the situation and made decisions based upon their unique knowledge and beliefs about parents.

Nevertheless, teachers rely on the strength of their perspectives, by believing in themselves and in what they teach, to prevail in their attempts to affect students. It is their perspectives and beliefs that impel the teachers to keep trying. In Sharla's case: "I know if I could get the parents involved and having them work with their kids at night it would make a big difference" (Kysela, p. 20).

Beliefs About Parents Influencing Decisions About Parents

The official view promoted in many schools implies or states the value of parental involvement, and teachers in this study have expressed similar views. A recurring belief among teachers in this study is that parents have a definite role in the school. In Sandra's school the parents formed a

committee involved in assisting and advising teachers. Sandra promotes this as beneficial both to her and to her students.

> It's amazing how much ... they know what to do and what to say.... They are very helpful in the classroom; there's a lot for them to do. (McNay, p. 44)
>
> I think it also benefits [the children]. Today's mom said she was "quite thrilled" to "see [her child] go through a whole morning [and] pick up what actually goes on in her class." (McNay, p. 44)

The teachers share the view that parental involvement in the school can be beneficial to students, teachers, and parents, yet the nature of this involvement varies considerably. Sharla indicated she wished to get parents involved by helping students at home. In Kim's school, parents demonstrated their interest by lobbying the school board to prevent the school's closure at a time when student enrollment was low. "The parent community continues to stop the closure" (Maaskant, p. 1). Sandra explained that parents in her school took on many jobs, such as

> coloring or laminating or setting up or something along that line. And when it comes to center time, they actually get involved with the kids and sit down with them and encourage them to do the activity.... They're involved also ... in advising the teacher ... and they make suggestions.... They help out on field trips ... or parties. (McNay, p. 36)

She encouraged this involvement because

> I think there has to be a close tie between the home and the school, and keeping parents informed of what's going on, and I think the LAC [Local Advisory Council] is one way of doing that.... It is a way of involving parents in the program. (McNay, p. 36)

Beliefs similar to Sandra's are expressed by most of the teachers. Even when witnessing a parent reproaching her son, the teacher took a positive attitude: "I'm sure she's loving, but she's not mushy.... She seems like a good mom; like he's not neglected in any way" (Halabisky, p. 12).

Although parental involvement is seen as helpful in the classroom, teachers indicate they seek to define the limits of the parents' participation. In Molly's case, a "major professional goal ... evolved around her work with parents," (Blakey, p. 3) and the belief that "they need to be able to function independently" (p. 38). To do this, Molly also recognized "that parents needed some guidelines in order to function in such an independent or self-directed manner" (p. 25). Parents seeking to become involved in the schools are provided several opportunities to do so, but some parents have a tendency to overstep the limits teachers feel are acceptable. When this happens some teachers might express resentment, as did Kare who said, "I don't consider it my job to put up with the parents' interfering with my program" (Mochoruk, p. 16).

The teachers' beliefs about parents influence decisions teachers make in two ways. The beliefs bear on decisions teachers make about students, curriculum, and teaching methods; the beliefs influence the ways teachers interact with parents and the ways teachers employ them in the class.

Beliefs and Decisions About Children

An important part of the perspectives of the 14 elementary teachers in our study are their beliefs about children. These beliefs, in turn, translate into classroom decisions. In this section, we attempt to highlight these beliefs and decisions as they are revealed in the case studies. We chose to present a single general belief about children, four major beliefs which are inter-related but distinguishable, and several minor beliefs which relate directly to a major belief.

Although all the teachers believed in some aspects of the following statement, not all of them would subscribe to all parts of it. However, we believe this single general statement best reflects the beliefs about

children held by most of the 14 teachers in our study. CHILDREN ARE UNIQUE INDIVIDUALS WHO SEEK TO MAKE MEANING OUT OF INFORMAL LEARNING EXPERIENCES, SUCH AS PLAY. THEY NEED LOVE, RESPECT, NURTURE, AND GUIDANCE IN ORDER TO DEVELOP TO THEIR FULL POTENTIAL WITHIN SOCIETY.

This statement incorporates four major beliefs which, although closely related, deserve individual treatment. The first two beliefs are oriented to the nature of children; the last two beliefs focus on the needs of children.

1. Children are unique individuals deserving love and respect as young persons.
2. Children learn best when activities are meaningful and enjoyable.
3. Children need to develop self-esteem.
4. Children require socialization if they are to cope with school and society.

The teachers in our study seemed to assume that propinquity was a key to an understanding or knowledge of working with children. Kim, a kindergarten teacher, spoke often of her belief that knowledge about children was not the same as experience with them.

> I mean theory's fine, but when you get into the classroom it's a different story. Children don't always respond the way you expect them to. (Maaskant, p. 14)

As we further examined these beliefs, it became apparent that some combinations of the four had the potential to be contradictory. Not all educators consider learning through play to be congruent with socialization within a school context. Some also view the unique needs of individuals as less important than the need for group conformity and routines implied by socialization. The case studies indicate that teachers often struggle with ways to accommodate their beliefs about the educator's role in socialization. Scott discussed the teacher's need to "walk a tightrope" and "balance the

demands" in order to do justice both to children and to society. This tension is evident in many of the case studies.

Belief: Children are Unique Individuals. The teachers believed that children were unique individuals and that they were deserving of love and respect as young persons. Sandra, a kindergarten teacher, spoke of children as "little people who have so much to offer .... I ... look at each child as an individual" (McNay, p. 16).

Mochoruk stated in her case study that Kare, also a kindergarten teacher, believed each child was unique and had abilities different from those of other children. Halabisky observed that probably the most noticeable aspect of Shirley's perspective was her respect for the children in her grade five class.

> Shirley is aware of each student as a feeling individual. She seems to know intuitively how each child is feeling and how best to let that child know he is a worthwhile person. (Halabisky, p. 8)

The teachers often found that having unique individuals in their classrooms compounded the problem of teaching. Donna, a teacher with a combined grade one-two class, spoke of taking this into account when she made decisions about lesson design.

> I firmly believe that what works for one child isn't going to work for the next child. So I use a combination of a whole bunch of things, so hopefully ... every child will catch on because I've used one sort of method that works for them, and because you can find faults in everything. I just pick and choose what I think is appropriate.... I think you should use a variety. (Sande, p. 41)

Following from their belief in the uniqueness of individual children, teachers made decisions which enabled them to get to know their students as individuals. Shirley observed social groupings in order to get to know her children better.

> I wanted them to pick their own groups to see how they worked in that group and also to see who they would go with and who the leaders would be, just for my own perception. (Halabisky, p. 17)

Molly, a kindergarten teacher, used anecdotal notes to become better acquainted with her children.

> I did it so that in a two-week period I had noted something about each child, and I still found some kids you could go, "Oh, you know, do I have a lot to write about this!" and others ... you had to really stop and think [about] because there are some kids that they're in your classroom, they listen well, they work well independently, and those are the kids you can sometimes bypass. (Blakey, p. 2)

Tracey, an intern working with a grade two teacher, took advantage of her team-teaching situation to learn about her students.

> Another idea I had was that's what I would conference them about, their autobiography, so that way I could talk with them and I'd see the person and then see what they do. (Massing, p. 17)

Acknowledging that children are unique sometimes meant that teachers placed the personal concerns of their students ahead of academic concerns. This sentiment, which was expressed by several teachers working in low socioeconomic neighborhoods, relates closely to beliefs about self-esteem and socialization. Teachers who held this belief often made decisions to adapt the curriculum so that critical personal and social issues could be addressed. Sharla taught a grade four class in a low socioeconomic neighborhood.

> Another thing that really influences us again is just dealing with the kids and where they are coming from. If there is a problem at home, we will spend an hour in the morning discussing what it feels like if your mom is divorced, or if your mom and dad had a fight, and why you feel the way you do, and how can you help, and how can you control [your feelings]. (Kysela, p. 22)

Belief: Children Learn Best Through Activities Which Are Meaningful and Enjoyable. This belief was expressed in various forms by virtually all the

teachers. Sandra was typical of the early childhood education graduates who spoke forcefully of this belief in terms of play.

> Sandra's approach to teaching in kindergarten is largely based on play, an approach that is so natural and so much a part of her view of teaching that she is hardly able to say why, and in some ways she hardly feels it necessary: "Why is play valuable? If you have an early childhood back ground ... you know that play is valuable.... It's just in your brain." (McNay, p. 24)

Cheryl sent home a poem entitled "Play Today." It offered a rationale for the activity centers which were basic to her kindergarten program. Here is the first verse:

> You say you love your children,
> And are concerned they learn today?
> So am I--that's why I'm providing
> A variety of kinds of play.
> (Scott, p. 33)

Cheryl believed the initial good feelings experienced by children were critical.

> I want to foster that enjoyment and that love of school. It's not so important that they like me, but they like what is happening and they like themselves. (Scott, p. 34)

The previous statements were from kindergarten teachers. In contrast, Sarah, who taught a combined grade one-two class, was one of the few teachers who clearly disagreed with the idea of informal play. She felt that play was inappropriate for the grade level of her students.

> All they want to do is play.... They don't even want to sit still long enough to even listen to what's going on, let alone try to do it themselves. Like, their attention span is just not there. So, like, I just don't think they're ready. Like, it seems they're too young. They should be in kindergarten those kids, playing, because that's the happiest time of the day ... when we have centers and they get to do some art things, or math, when they get to have those buckets out and stuff. That's the only time ... but, if it's sitting down it's fidget, fidget, fidget, fidget. (Chamberlin, p. 56)

Later, Sarah put away the math buckets and brought out math sheets instead.

> I gave them directions instead of letting them discover.... When it came to adding, I didn't do it their way, I did it my way! So I gave them more sit down and fill in the blank kind of sheets and practice sheets. (Chamberlin, p. 45)

Most of the other teachers who taught elementary grades recognized the importance of play but they expressed their belief differently. A theme in Everett-Turner's case study of Mark, a grade five teacher, was "it has to be relevant." An example of making school relevant for his class was Mark's decision to use Donald Graves' ideas as a basis for his writing program.

Kent, also a grade five teacher, expressed a strong desire to move to a more student-centered model of teaching.

> I want to try and develop centers this year.... I want to develop a really good meaningful center for them. (Massey, p. 11)

Problems with classroom management and difficult students militated against Kent's developing activity centers. Four months later, Kent expressed his frustration

> with the type of student that we have here.... If I left it up to [the center], I have a feeling it would be all over the place. I am wondering if it is worth it because they haven't got that kind of control. (Massey, p. 19)

Sharla taught grade four students from low socioeconomic backgrounds. She believed the curriculum should address their problems, but she also felt it was important just to have fun for its own sake. Kysela stated that

> although this theme often seemed submerged, as it were, under the guise of some more obvious curriculum objective, it was nevertheless a significant component of the factors influencing Sharla's decisions. An example was the trip to the local mall; she indicated it was for fun-based learning as well as for learning the ways and means of getting around a shopping center. (Kysela, p. 20)

Incorporated in the belief that school should be enjoyable was the idea that children in elementary school should not be subjected to undue pressure. Donna, a grade one-two teacher, was careful to guard her children against pressure.

> I think school should be something that they look forward to and enjoy and that learning is fun. I mean when you add pressure to them, I think it becomes negative. They're not going to learn if they have ... feel pressure on them. (Sande, p. 51)

Shirley emphasized "educational" rather than "Olympic" gymnastics in order that each child in her grade five class could perform to his or her potential rather than having the pressure to perform to a preset standard (Halabisky, p. 11).

Belief: Children Need to Develop Self-Esteem. A third belief was that children need to develop self-esteem. A statement of this belief came from Tracey, a grade two intern.

> I think it's important for them to come out [of school] knowing that they're special.... I think that it is also important that they know school is a safe place-- it's a safe room. The academics are important, like they have to know how to read and write and stuff, but I think if they come out of my classroom knowing that they're special and they can do anything they want, then they've accomplished something. (Massing, p. 15)

For Tracey, this translated into decisions to treat her student fairly and with affection and to talk with them when they seemed to have problems.

The case studies suggest that self-esteem is fostered when students are given self-control appropriate for their age, when they participate in processes where their ideas are respected, and when they are successful. Kysela gave many examples of how Sharla tried to give her grade four students

a feeling of control and influence over their destiny, at least in the classroom.

> I send glad notes home. We are really striving constantly to make the kids feel good about themselves and feel as if they control their lives. (p. 23)

Blakey observed that from the first day of kindergarten Molly expected her students to be responsible for themselves and for their classmates and to care for others.

> One aim of being responsible is to become independent. She said, "I say, 'You can help your neighbors out.' And I'll make children help each other. They come and say, 'Where's the paper?' And I'll find someone and say, 'Could you please show them where the paper is.'" (Blakey, p. 16)

Kare encouraged children to solve their own problems by demonstrating with puppets that fought with each other or misbehaved. Then she asked the children to suggest possible nonviolent solutions to the conflicts portrayed (Mochoruk).

Sande mentioned that Donna, who taught grades one and two, regularly used student helpers and this was "something the children loved to be part of" (p. 42). She also made a practice of brainstorming with her students.

Cheryl believed that, for kindergarten children, accomplishments like tying laces, getting dressed, or pinning on your own name tag represented steps toward independence.

> They don't need this adult for every single little thing. If they are self-sufficient and self reliant they feel good about learning and about themselves. (Scott, p. 41)

Scott suggested that, although Cheryl knew what she wanted her students to accomplish, "she nevertheless realized that the time-line for its

implementation will be decided by how the children cope. Nurturing means making progress without casualties" (p. 49).

Several teachers noted that primary children were egocentric by nature. This characteristic of young children seemed to come as a surprise to several teachers, despite their having learned about it in university. The following was Kim's comment:

> I learned in theory where children are in all these levels of child development, but to actually see it and relate it to that information is kind of neat because it now makes sense to me.... What I'm noticing is the egocentricity--that there are many children that want an audience all the time, and they think that they're entitled to that, and somehow ... all children are entitled to have the attention, but they have to learn that in a class of twenty-four they have to wait their turn. (Maaskant, p. 16)

Kim's discovery that kindergarten children were egocentric was not upsetting to her, nor did it make her feel less positive toward her charges. Despite observing that children can sometimes be cruel (Halabisky) and that children say what they feel (Massey), the teachers generally expressed and demonstrated respect for children. They also acted in ways which promoted self-esteem.

Belief: Children Require Socialization. The belief that children require socialization if they are to cope with school and society was unanimously endorsed in various ways by the teachers. Socialization im- plied that because society operates on routines, rules, and manners, children must be helped to shape their natural inclinations to the demands of society. It also implied that there were consequences for breaking the rules and children must learn to be accountable.

Cheryl's rationale was typical of this thinking.

> From personal experience and things like that, a lot of the child's success has to do with whether they can handle the routines.... I like them to be able to know things like how to act in the hallways, and lining up, and there's ... school rules. There's things that have to be done and followed that are outside of themselves, and you may not always like them, and they are not always the most fun things in the world, but you need some organization. Otherwise there's chaos and nothing will happen, and so, I guess, that's the main reason why I'm teaching that. (Scott, p. 35)

Sharla, a grade four teacher, reiterated Cheryl's belief that a stable environment is a prerequisite to academic learning.

> Education is really, I think, socializing little people into becoming bigger people.... Their academics are very, very important, but if they can't deal with themselves, you know, what's academics to them? (Kysela, p. 21)

Mochoruk reported that Kare believed "structure makes it possible for students to enjoy themselves without chaos, and the child feels more secure in a structured environment" (p. 24).

The need for a safe environment for children seemed to be a prime concern of the teachers. McNay described how Sandra worked with children to develop eight "Kindergarten Rules for a Happy Classroom." The children knew the rules and the consequences for breaking them.

> [They know that] if they are in a center activity, and they're bothering somebody else or ... screaming in a loud voice, they have chosen to sit out that activity. So they know they can either choose to do the activity quietly, as expected, or they can choose to sit out. So when I see something happening, I say, "You have a choice." (McNay, p. 30)

The use of choices was a common theme for the teachers with an early childhood education background. Tracey, the grade two intern, did not have an early childhood background but attributed the idea to reading she had done.

> I try to say it [the choice] is there. You know, you make a decision. You can either do this and stay or you can choose to do that and go

> back to the room. It's up to you. (Massing, p. 25)

Scott described the comprehensive set of self-regulating techniques, signals, and routines which Cheryl, a kindergarten teacher in her second year, had developed to maintain control. Sande observed a similar structure in Donna's grade one and two classroom.

> The organization which was so typical of Donna was perceived by the children as imposed. Donna's quiet, assured manner and her caring for each child was more appropriately seen as "organized spontaneity." This young teacher knew of her children's needs, knew the need for order and routine, yet was able to apply this order with warmth and caring that guaranteed each child special attention, special privileges, and confidence that their teacher loved and cared for them. (Sande, p. 26)

Either some groups of students were more easily socialized than others, or some teachers were more competent at imposing hidden structure, or both. Massey noted that Kent, a grade five teacher in a so-called tough neighborhood "used battle metaphors in talking about student behavior" (p. 18). For teachers like Kent, who were looking for classroom management strategies, teacher effectiveness training offered skills which were critical to achieving the goal of socialization.

> What I learned in the teacher effectiveness [inservice program] is you have to have a system. They give you guidelines and they give you advice, but you have to have a system that is going to cut down on any frustration and anxiety on your part so that you will not be negative with students. (Massey, p. 18)

McNay asked her teacher if she was aware of any inconsistency between her concern on the one hand for children as individuals and her concern on the other hand to teach and maintain responsibility to the group. The teacher's carefully considered reply was, we think, representative of the thinking of most teachers in our study.

> What I am trying to say is that each child is still treated as an individual but still must realize

> that he is an individual within a group. We must get along as individuals within our classroom, our school, our community, our society! (McNay, p. 32)

This statement suggests that the teachers were conscious of the various beliefs they held about children: they seemed to sense the need to accommodate one with another in order to develop the whole child. How did the teachers' beliefs about children correspond with their beliefs and decisions about how to teach? For a discussion of this question we turn to the following section.

Beliefs and Decisions About How to Teach

> I don't think there's any one right method of teaching. A lot of the traditional methods work. I think you have to find something you're comfortable with and that you know works for you. (Massing, p. 15)

This quote characterizes, in one way, the struggles the teachers in this study were experiencing in terms of the "How to Teach" issue. Although significant individual differences were apparent among the 14 teachers, all developed an approach to instruction fitting their unique personalities and situations. Themes covering the significant beliefs and attendant decisions made by the teachers are addressed in this section; the first two themes juxtapose two apparently opposing views regarding the question of how to teach most effectively.

Teacher-Directed versus Student-Directed Learning. These apparently opposing views as to who is directing the learning in fact seem to represent a continuum from more teacher-planned and controlled to more student-initiated and managed learning experiences. Most of the teachers tried to move from the former to the latter regardless of the grade level of their pupils. The following comments exemplify the more teacher-directed end of the continuum:

> I give them directions instead of letting them discover. (Chamberlin, p.45)
>
> There was a strong desire to move from teacher-dominated instruction to a more student-centered model. (Massey, p. 9)

More student-directed approaches to learning were prevalent in the teachers' attempts to make the learning experience "driven" more by student motivation than by teacher influence. This belief seems to be based on a fundamental principle held by most of the teachers that student-directed learning would be more effective.

> The children are self-directed. (Blakey)
>
> Children explore and experiment with their choices. (Mochoruk, p. 21)

Several approaches were used by the teachers attempting to realize this transition in the direction of teaching and learning. Many teachers employed learning centers, to some extent, as a means of increasingly involving the students in their own learning. Also, several teachers actively involved students in a variety of decision making processes in order to enhance the students' feeling of influence and control over their daily learning experiences. Each of these themes is addressed in the discussion that follows.

Learning Centers. The concept of learning centers was very prevalent in the classrooms involved in this study. Several teachers employed centers as the primary teaching milieu in which how to teach was characterized by having the students learn within the context of these centers (Blakey; Maaskant; McNay; Mochuruk; Scott).

In addition, these centers were often associated with a learning through play motif within the classroom, especially for the early childhood education teachers. Thus, several teachers saw the transition from teacher-

directed to student-directed learning as being realized through the gradual increase in the use of child centers and by using play as a learning medium. Other teachers were just beginning to introduce centers as an adjunctive area of student involvement, either as a reward for completing studies early in another area or as a means of enhancing student motivation (Chamberlin; Halabisky; Kysela; Massing; Sande).

Although some teachers spoke of a desire to take into account the children's individual differences and interests, they were just beginning to develop ways and means of doing so. However, they also found this a very difficult process to implement (Everett-Turner; Halabisky; Maaskant; Massey; Tucker).

Student Involvement in Decision Making. Another facet of this student-directed learning experience was expressed by the teachers as a belief that student involvement in decision making would be a positive feature of their teaching. Several perspectives on this topic reflected a wide variety of ways in which the teachers actually involved their students in the various decisions made. As well, this process occurred throughout the primary grade levels from kindergarten to grade five, as the following quotes indicate:

> As for student control and involvement in decision making, Sharla valued student involvement in the decision making process. (Kysela, p. 23)
>
> I'd like to move towards a less structured setting ... and open-ended activities where children can make some decisions about what and how they are going to be involved. (Maaskant, p. 18)
>
> to involve the children more in the planning process. (Blakey, p. 1)

Thus the use of learning centers and student involvement in classroom decisions seemed to be employed frequently to facilitate the transition from teacher-directed to student-directed learning. It was a difficult transition

to make and many teachers were still struggling with the process in December, four months after having begun the school year.

Modeling and Student Independence. The prior emphasis on the teachers' beliefs in student involvement and decision making should not be interpreted as minimizing the teachers' view that the teacher should be actively involved in student learning. Several descriptions of active teacher involvement and modeling in the learning process reveal the importance of a second continuum ranging from teacher-exemplified to independent, student-oriented learning activities:

> You must teach rather than assign work--teach and work along with the kids. (Stephanson, p. 36)
>
> When dealing with the aspect [of socialization] Kare's role changes slightly and she must model appropriate behavior. (Mochoruk, p. 22)
>
> Children learn through modeling. (Scott, p. 18)

Toward the other end of the continuum, the teachers in this study also had a commitment to assisting the children in becoming more independent learners. The previous descriptions of learning center activities and student involvement in problem solving were manifestations of this belief. The teachers also attempted to actively develop the children's independent learning styles, eager to see the students take on more responsibility for their learning.

> One of Tracey's focuses in management was encouraging children to solve their own problems. (Massing, p. 25)
>
> Children have to learn to be independent. (Mochoruk, p. 21)
>
> Children have to be responsible for themselves. (Blakey, p. 16)
>
> We'd be doing things for Christmas anyway, so instead of doing a whole class thing, I just put them in centers.... I could put up little things

> that they would be able to do by themselves without much explanation. (Chamberlin, p. 62)
>
> I'd spend time preparing them ... so they know what they were supposed to do once they got into their groups. (Massey, p. 14)

These quotes refer to classrooms ranging from kindergarten to grade five, exemplifying the fact that this belief and attendant teaching practices exist among teachers throughout the early years of school. There was a strong sense among these teachers of developing independent functioning within the classroom. However, it is important to put this belief into perspective with another intersecting continuum involving the degree of group teaching versus individualized instruction used by the teachers.

Individualizing Instruction. This third continuum represents the degree to which the teachers attempted to individualize their teaching activities vis-a-vis students' individual strengths and needs, or the extent to which the class was taught as a homogeneous group using more traditional group instructional methods. Many teachers did teach the whole class in specific content areas, especially when their curriculum of choice seemed to lend itself readily to such instructional methods. However, even though on occasions the class was taught as a whole, there was still, in most classrooms, a desire to meet individual student needs.

> There was a concern for the children as individuals.... Children work at their own level and they're not becoming frustrated. (Massing, p. 22)
>
> Because there are so many different learning styles of children ... some children do not pick up reading the whole language way.... They have to have a book in front of them and have to focus on the print. (Chamberlin, p. 42)
>
> I firmly believe what works for one child isn't going to work for the next. (Sande, p. 41)

Thus it is clear that individual differences between students are being identified and taken into account by the teachers in instructional planning and decision making. Beliefs regarding student needs and strengths affect, in significant ways, the how to teach dimensions of these classrooms. The teachers also expressed beliefs regarding specific practices and methods they felt to be most useful in their instructional activities.

Specific Methods for Instruction. Several specific approaches and methods were described by the teachers as being particularly useful and effective in planning and teaching. These methods included the use of grouping, signs and signals, trial and error methods, and positive reinforcement.

Several teachers mentioned grouping as an effective way of meeting student needs, while at the same time providing more contact time for the majority of students (Chamberlin; Everett-Turner; Halabisky; Massey; Sande). Grouping was employed for the typical curricular activities such as language arts or mathematics instruction as well as for more creative activities such as art and thematic projects for school plays and concerts.

The use of signs and signals with the students, as well as other tricks of the trade, also seemed to facilitate the teaching activities.

> They line up; they sit quietly for circle; they put their hands up; you know, they follow my signals and they are not fazed by it. They just seem to be coping beautifully. (Scott, p. 37)

Despite the apparent incongruity of this process, several teachers indicated that the "trial and error" method was a frequent approach in their decisions as to how to teach a particular concept, lesson, or skill. In this manner, the teacher would attempt an instructional approach with which the teacher had had no direct experience or the opportunity to

practice. It was felt by many teachers that this approach aided them in being flexible and spontaneous.

> I think you have to be really, really flexible in elementary school 'cause there's so much going on. (Sande, p. 34)
>
> I'm willing to take the risks and try new things. (Maaskant, p. 15)
>
> And I said, "Yeah, but I'm doing so many things that I start them and then they're not working or that's not a good way and so you have to try something else." (Stephanson, p. 39)
>
> I must give it a try or I'll never really know. (Everett-Turner, p. 21)
>
> You learn the second time around, I guess. (Mochoruk, p. 25)

The final, specific method which many teachers referred to was the ubiquitous practice of positive reinforcement, so prevalent in our thinking about the ways in which teachers react to student learning and success. Although this practice is often taken for granted in our analysis of the teaching process, it is instructive to see how teachers incorporated it into their teaching style.

> You have to have a system that's going to cut down on any frustration and anxiety on your part so that you will not be negative with students. (Massey, p. 18)
>
> Shirley not only talks about positive reinforcement, she lives it. (Halabisky, p. 13)
>
> Positive reinforcement sticks with them. (Sande, p. 40)

Enjoyment of Learning and Respect of Students. Finally, within the context of the how to teach beliefs, two very important beliefs seem to have affected the approaches these teachers took to the provision of instruction. These two beliefs are described earlier in the section regarding teacher beliefs in general. The present concern is specifically for the implications of these beliefs for the teachers' planning and instructional

decision making activities. Student enjoyment and a genuine respect for the students were both viewed as essential components of the teachers' beliefs and decisions. Thus, when planning how to teach a particular lesson, the teachers often discussed these issues as important factors in their decision making regarding the lesson plan or selection.

Student enjoyment was seen as a critical condition for effective instruction and student learning.

> I think school should be something that they look forward to and enjoy and that learning is fun. (Sande, p. 40)
>
> Sharla enjoyed the "Let's have fun motif" as much as the students would let her and the curriculum would allow. (Kysela, p. 32)
>
> If kids don't like it, there's not much point in doing it. (Chamberlin, p. 61)
>
> Cheryl feels that it is important for her to design a kindergarten program that children will enjoy. (Scott, p. 32)
>
> School should be fun. (Everett-Turner, p. 17)

The second basic assumption regarding the children which seemed to underlie most teachers' instruction was caring, humanistic respect for the students in regard to classroom activity and the students' experience. These feelings are exemplified by the following brief vignettes.

> In terms of my classroom, I try to make it a positive place for the kids and [I'm] trying to show the kids that I respect them and that they should respect me. (Stephanson, p. 26)
>
> It's a lot of, "What's going on today?" ... and what's going to fit in with how the kids are feeling. (Massing, p. 17)

Summary. Thus, how to teach encompassed several dimensions of actual instructional activities. Moving from teacher-directed to student-directed learning and instructional activities played a prominent role in the teachers' beliefs and decisions. Student involvement in decision making was

viewed as an essential component of this process. Individualizing the students' programs was seen as an effective way to accomplish this more sensitive teaching approach. Several methods rather specific to our school learning situations were also valued by these teachers. These specific methods included grouping, trial and error teaching, specific use of signals and signs, and the use of positive reinforcement. Finally, basic values such as the need for student enjoyment and a basic concern and caring for the students seemed to lie at the heart of the instructional process for these teachers.

Although one may get the impression that each of these factors was well controlled and implemented in a successful and effective learning environment, such was not the case. The teachers were each struggling with various facets of this how to teach process; they each had a different set of problems associated with how to teach their students, some being successful in areas where others had a great deal of difficulty. The contradictions section, which concludes this part of the report, highlights some of these areas of difficulty and conflict.

Beliefs And Decisions About What To Teach

The reality of teaching as a craft is revealed from the case studies to be a complex story which revolved around gaining control over a group, establishing routines, and socializing students. The aspect of what to teach was a concern of all 14 teachers. The "what" implies curriculum. It is indicated in the case studies that not only is there a written curriculum that teachers must follow, but a hidden curriculum as well.

The Written Curriculum. The following quote reflects the beliefs and decisions about what to teach held by many of the teachers in our study:

> You know, I really feel if you are going to get these kids to progress at all you have to keep them interested, and a lot of what is in the curriculum is not interesting, is not relevant to their lives at all ... unless you are willing to make changes. (Kysela, p. 18)

The grade one to five teachers felt that children are taught subjects.

> We are given the minimum amount of minutes for each subject so I made sure I had those first. I have everything over the amount needed except for P. E., art, and health. They have exactly what is needed. (Halabisky, p. 15)

The fifth grade teachers taught what the curriculum guides outlined for several of the subjects. The decisions they made on what to teach also reflected their own personal needs.

> I'm, I guess, a type of teacher.... If I'm teaching a grade, I use strictly all the curriculum books, and I use everything, and I kind of go right in order until I know it. (Massey, p. 20)

> I don't know the curriculum guides all that well .... I can rely on the teacher's guide right now. I don't like to do it all the time, but for this year, a lot of things are so I can go through them and see what they are like. (Everett-Turner, p. 24)

Several teachers emphasized the importance of teaching language arts which, in a few cases, represents an emphasis at the school level. For example, "this school is focused in on the language arts, reading, and writing, and if language arts fits in fine, and if it doesn't I don't think it's a priority. Like, that's the message I got" (Chamberlin, p. 23). When planning what to teach, several teachers attempted to integrate all the subjects. Donna believed that

> one pushes that we should integrate, and when we're teaching a certain lesson, there should be all sorts of subject areas coming through. (Sande, p. 21)

Tracy attempted to integrate learning material and to make it interesting and relevant for her students.

> I figured, if we're doing summaries, I thought we would do something on what they're taking--and they've been taking the United States right now and about the Civil War, and so that's what our last two summaries have been about. (Massing, p. 18).

Many teachers were concerned that "they get through all the material" (Massey, p. 31) so that students would be ready for the next grade. This common concern was indicated by the kindergarten teachers as well as the grade one to five teachers. Molly stated that, "even though there's not a written curriculum, there are expectations placed on you for when kids are beginning grade one" (Blakey, p. 35).

The kindergarten teachers provide children with activities and experiences that enhance their social, physical, intellectual, creative, and emotional development. These goals are outlined in the Early Childhood Services Philosophy, Goals, and Program Dimensions handbook and serve as a guide for kindergarten teachers in their planning of what to teach. The materials to be used are decided by the teachers. Their decisions are made on the basis of their own interests and the interests of the students. The following comments exemplify the belief that what is taught should be of interest to the students.

> Dinosaurs is a theme that all children are really interested in and a good number of them know a great deal about them, whereas there are some themes that may not be so interesting to children. I think I'd be flexible enough that if children were really not showing an interest, then we'd move to something else. (Maaskant, p. 23)

> Children learn what they're ready to learn, they do what they're ready to do, and they should do things that are important to them ... and use ideas that come from the kids just like big people.... We like to do things we are interested in, not just because someone tells you to do it. (Mochoruk, p. 21)

Several of the teachers' decisions on what to teach were influenced by parents. Kare stated, "Parents want their children learning the alphabet,

printing, and reading" (Mochoruk, p. 14). Another kindergarten teacher felt that she had to "try to provide some structure where children are learning the things their parents are expecting them to learn" (Maaskant, p. 37).

As indicated by Ann and Jill, teachers make decisions on what to teach based on feedback from students. Several of the teachers got ideas about what to teach from other teachers. For example,

> I looked at the plans [left by the previous kindergarten teacher here]. She included gymnastics, creative dance, games, and small equipment in lessons each week.... I thought that was a good idea, so that's what I am trying to do now. (McNay, p. 46)

Inservice training sessions also provided several teachers with ideas on what to teach.

> I went to a math [inservice session] on Monday. That was really good. I liked that one too.... She showed us all the books that the School Board recommends and all the Alberta Government Curriculum Guides and a classroom teacher who taught grade one got up and showed us ... all this stuff ... little games and practical ideas that you could make. (Chamberlin, p. 35)

The Hidden Curriculum. Several teachers felt it was necessary to follow the prescribed curriculum guides but at the same time deal with hidden curriculum issues. All the teachers felt that it was their responsibility to socialize students. They believed it was important for them to teach children manners; to have respect for one another; to be independent, responsible human beings; to behave properly; and "just things they're gonna need to get through life" (Chamberlin, p. 46).

The following comments exemplify the teachers' views of what to teach in the area of social skills:

> Too much emphasis is being placed on the "paper part" of a child's performance and not enough on their social growth, emotional maturity, and ability to adjust to new situations. (Blakey, p. 33)

> Socialization is the main thing....
> I like them to be able to know things like how we act in the hallways and lining up, and there's school rules. (Scott, p. 35)
>
> I think manners are really important at this level. (McNay, p. 31)

No matter what grade the teachers taught, teaching manners to children was a major concern. Kent believed that his fifth grade students must be taught to sit quietly and raise their hands to speak (Massey). One teacher mentioned that "if you can't get their behavior in line you're not going to teach them anything anyway" (Stephanson, p. 49).

All teachers wanted their students to develop the ability to get along well with others, be responsible for their own learning and behavior, and to grow up to be good citizens, fulfilling their aspirations and making a positive contribution to society. Therefore, it was important for the teachers to teach the appropriate skills to enhance such development. They felt they had been raised to behave properly and taught social skills by their elementary school teachers. The teachers felt that it was their responsibility to pass on these social skills to their students for the students' own good.

Contradictions and Dilemmas

Although some members of our research team either reported no contradictions or no significant ones (Sande; Halabisky; Massing), most reported contradictions between the teachers' beliefs and classroom decisions. In some cases, the teachers were aware of these contradictions. In others, either they were unaware or they did not acknowledge them as contradictions. When acknowledged, the contradictions posed dilemmas for the teachers. These dilemmas raise important questions about teacher education

and inservice training. This section begins by identifying three recurring contradictions and the dilemmas which they create.

Contradiction 1: The teachers' beliefs about how children learn best were often contradicted by how the teachers taught. This created the teacher-directed versus student-centered teaching dilemma.

Contradiction 2: The teachers often perceived that their beliefs about the need to teach individual children were contradictory to the application of curricular guidelines to large groups of students. This created the hidden curriculum versus the written curriculum dilemma

Contradiction 3: The teachers' beliefs about the development of children's self-esteem seemed to be contradicted by some of the practices used for evaluation and reporting. This created a dilemma about the purpose of evaluation versus the method of evaluation.

Dilemma 1: Teacher-Directed Versus Child-Centered Teaching

For more than half of the teachers studied, there were contradictions between their beliefs about children and their decisions about how to teach. The majority of teachers in our study believed that children learn best through meaningful involvement. They believed children are unique, active learners who deserve opportunities to act responsibly and independently. Yet, in the name of socialization, teachers would often restrict student movements, limit decisions, and control access to information.

Maaskant identified "the negotiation of the teacher role and the student role" (p. 17) as one of the themes evolving from her case study of Kim. In the following series of quotations we can see Kim's professional growth during the period between September and December. In September, Kim said,

> I think right now I'd feel uncomfortable without structure because I don't know where things are going. (Maaskant, p. 18)

In October, Kim's comments revealed that she was keenly aware of the dilemma between teacher domination and child-centeredness.

> If it's an activity I really want to fit in and it's something I think the kids will enjoy then ... I will take their center time and hope there won't be any hard feelings about it.... I still want it more child-centered. (p. 18)

Kim continued to have reservations about the value of peer interaction, and in late October she still felt the need to control her children's activities.

> I feel like I ... have to manage everything. I'm the one with the control here and at this point I don't feel comfortable in letting them have more control because I don't think they're ready for that. (p. 20).

In a November journal entry, Kim indicated she felt ready "to move toward a less-structured setting and open-ended activities where children can make some decisions about what and how they are going to do something" (Maaskant, p. 21). In December, the teaching of a dinosaur unit marked Kim's successful transition to a child-centered teaching method. Instead of continuing to control the whole group and dispense information, Kim observed that "now they gave me the information" (Maaskant, p. 27).

Maaskant suggested that a drama workshop which met monthly under university auspices had helped Kim understand what was happening in her classroom. Support from this group helped her continue to struggle toward a solution which was consistent with her beliefs.

All five kindergarten teachers in our project struggled to some extent with the teacher-directed versus child-centered teaching dilemma. They struggled even though they had a background in the principles of early childhood education and no written curricular guidelines, a situation which could be viewed as giving them more freedom to implement their beliefs.

The dilemma of whether to use student-centered or teacher-directed methods existed for teachers at higher levels as well (Chamberlin; Everett-Turner; Kysela; Massey; Stephanson; Tucker). The following two quotations from Massey illustrate the contradiction which Kent, a grade five teacher, experienced.

> Growing out of the classroom observations and my conversations with him, it soon became apparent what Kent wanted. There was a strong desire to move from teacher-dominated instruction to a more student-centered model. (p. 9)

> So intense is the pressure on him to keep order and control in the classroom that he found himself spending a great deal of energy trying to perfect the teacher-dominant role. This appeared at odds with his attempts to move toward more student-centered instruction. (p. 24)

Everett-Turner (p. 16) identified "making it right for kids [according to Mark]" as a theme. She showed that Mark's belief in the uniqueness of children and his belief that learning must be relevant eventually clashed with his ability to organize an appropriate classroom structure and let go of his control.

> I believe quite strongly in group work and the social aspect of it but I didn't want to start them off right into it. I wanted to sort of ease them into it. (p. 20)

> Over the weekend I designed a new seating plan and I mixed them all up.... They were all sitting with their friends ... so I split them up. (p. 24)

Everett-Turner (p. 24) observed that Mark "often had to compromise what he believed to be ideal and what he thought he could handle." These compromises included not only the amount of freedom he could allow his students, but also the decisions he made about curriculum.

Dilemma 2: The Written Curriculum versus the Hidden Curriculum

Whether to follow the written curriculum, develop one which seemed more appropriate for one's students, or cater to the expectations of other groups such as parents, principals, or colleagues, was a dilemma for several teachers in our study (Blakey; Everett-Turner; Kysela; Scott). These pressures to conform to another standard caused tensions for the teachers. Molly, a kindergarten teacher, spoke of this pressure.

> There's school board pressure, parental pressure, system pressures.... Teachers do the best they can to meet the needsof their kids but they've got a lot of other pressures....I think that the demands and expectations that are placed on teachers are increasing.... And I think that the more they increase, the less you'll see of individualized programs and programs reflecting the needs of children. (Blakey, p. 32)

Blakey saw the "unwritten curriculum" as a theme in her case study. She said "that some of these pressures and demands were linked to increased testing and parental demands to see in writing what their [kindergarten] children were doing" (p. 32). The teacher believed that such expectations would "lead to programs that are less child-centered" (p. 32).

Kysela gave an example of one teacher whose hidden curriculum was tipped in favor of her perception of what was best for her students. This child-centered curriculum may have had hidden costs of its own.

> The critical matter is that she was often dedicating instructional time to this process, partly because of her view of needed developmental experiences for these students at this point in their development and also due to perceived needs of the students given their home environments and upbringing. (Kysela, p. 26)

Scott observed that Cheryl received inservice help in classroom management but none in dealing with curriculum or evaluation. In fact it was a colleague who suggested she make curricular changes.

> My mandate is changing. Socialization is still the main thing, but talking to the grade one

> teacher, and hearing some comments from the parents, they want their kids exposed to this. I guess the kids just really have a hard time when they get into grade one. (Scott, p. 51)

New teachers are sensitive to what parents and their colleagues think; examples from the case studies also suggest that they are often cautious about breaking with tradition. Cheryl was one of several examples.

> In a way it's being a chicken. You know, I am new to the system ... but I am not going to do everything you know--stick my neck out only a bit. (Scott, p. 62)

A crucial question which we cannot answer in this study is whether initial compliance becomes the eventual norm.

Dilemma 3: The Purpose of Evaluation versus the Method of Evaluation

A third major contradiction identified by several researchers (Blakey; Everett-Turner; McNay; Scott) was between the need to develop children's self-esteem and the requirement to evaluate students and report to parents. Sandra was typical of several kindergarten teachers who felt caught between conflicting beliefs.

> [At the university] they don't believe in testing at the kindergarten level, which is kind of funny because when I came to the system it was ... you should have some sort of record to show growth. (McNay, p. 27)

Everett-Turner clearly showed how evaluation created a dilemma for Mark at the grade five level.

> As Mark tried to justify his assessment of individual students against the norm-referenced criteria of the school system, he faced a real dilemma. He also realized that although giving a B to one child to encourage him might work for that child, it posed problems when assigning marks across the class. (Everett-Turner, p. 31)

Through consultation with his principal, Mark was able to reach a compromise of sorts, but how to assess children's growth and achievements

fairly and be able to share this information with parents "continued to be an on-going dilemma which Mark shared with many other teachers" (Everett-Turner, p. 32).

Implications

Most teachers in this study perceived some contradictions between their beliefs about children and their decisions within the school context. Sometimes this happened because they were unwilling to challenge the perceived school norms. In other cases they realized they lacked the skills to teach in a style consistent with their beliefs. While the inclination of the teachers seemed to be towards a child-centered teaching style, their tendency was to move toward a teacher-directed style. This was especially true when attempted innovations failed or the teachers experienced classroom management problems. It seemed that when experiments failed the teachers fell back on their previous experiences. For young teachers this generally meant to teach the way they were taught. Certainly, there are plenty of examples of teacher-directed learning to follow in the schools.

This observation has implications for the preparation of teachers. Do teachers need more exposure to other teachers who successfully use child-centered teaching styles? Are schools of education teaching the skills necessary for beginning teachers to meet the following demands: (a) to successfully employ more than one teaching style; (b) to recognize when different styles are appropriate; (c) to identify their initial difficul-ties or setbacks as predictable and to be able to use strategies to avoid reactionary responses.

This teaching style dilemma also indicates a need within the local school context not only for specific inservice training, but also for a personal and on-going support system. Beginning teachers seem to need someone

who will show interest, discuss problems, and generally encourage perseverance despite initial failures.

Many of the suggestions made in the preceding paragraph with regard to the first dilemma also apply to the second and third dilemmas. Here also it seems that teacher educators should try to prepare their students for the pressure and the contradictions. Yet some case studies (Everett-Turner; Maaskant) emphasized that teachers felt theory could not prepare them for the actual experience. Peer support systems and/or specific inservice training could help answer questions and break down the isolation felt by some teachers (Chamberlin; Scott; Tucker).

It is only after identifying the dilemmas which teachers face in their beginning years that teacher educators and school administrators can adapt their programs. Solutions to dilemmas are always elusive, but if we know the questions and we are prepared to wrestle with them openly, then teachers may feel better knowing they are not alone in their quest.

IV. EFFECTS: RESPONDING TO BEING A TEACHER

Introduction

This exploration into the perspectives of 14 teachers has unearthed two general types of effects on them: those that make teaching seem a pleasurable enterprise and those which highlight the teachers' vulnerability. Comments such as "It's a lot of work, but I am enjoying what I am doing and ... it's been the right choice for me" (McNay, p. 40) and "It's been a lot of fun. I've really enjoyed myself, but I've found I've been really tired" (Massing, p. 38) give a glimpse into the world of teachers during the early years of their careers.

Some of our teachers were caught during a major transition period. For example, the interns and first-year teachers were moving from being students to being teachers whereas another teacher, with more years of service, was moving from teaching one grade level to teaching another. This transition was, for some of them, fraught with stress, frustration, and uncertainty. For other beginning teachers, the experience was less harrowing.

In this section we address, firstly, those negative feelings which teachers expressed and experienced as they tried to cope with life as a teacher. Secondly, we discuss those positive effects which some teachers experienced from the start of the year and which others experienced as they became more comfortable with the act of teaching. Finally, implications arising from these effects are presented.

That Other Side of Teaching

The most apparent negative effect on these teachers was stress. Stress emanating from a variety of sources resulted in uncertainty, lack of confidence, fatigue, anxiety, and frustration.

One source of stress was the teachers themselves. A second-year teacher who works in two different schools said

> I guess I feel pressure because I really don't know what to expect other than what the grade one teacher said. There's no clear guidelines set down. It's kind of like "there you go," and so I guess I will put pressure on myself because I would rather be a little higher than not making the grade. (Scott, p. 36)

Many instances of frustration seem linked to the teachers' feelings of uncertainty and inadequacy. Questions existed in relation to whether they were prepared to cope with the reality of teaching, whether what was being done was the right thing to do, or whether they knew if there was any purpose in doing what was supposed to be done. Coping with the children themselves also proved difficult for some teachers, both in terms of discipline and of their learning. Sarah said,

> I feel really inadequate teaching math. Like when a kid comes up to you and says, "3 + 2 = 5," do they really know what they're talking about here? Because, I don't know, I just think--I used to love math! And I don't think I'm giving kids that love. I think they hate it! Because I hate it. I just, ahhh, I don't know what to do.... Oh, I don't know. (Chamberlin, p. 45)

Kent, working with a group of children whose lives were stressful outside school, found that maintaining order consumed more time than he would wish. He said,

> I hate the discipline.... It just seems like it's all you're doing. Some class periods it isn't, you know. They've got the routine down and they are kind of calm.... You were talking about the double agenda [reference to two agendas in operation in the classroom: one concerned with lesson content and the other with maintaining a learning environment]. It seems like that one [behavior] can creep up and be the foremost in any period ... the discipline and the behavior.... That's what I hate the most. (Massey, p. 26)

Another source of stress was the expectations of parents. Parents of children in kindergarten seemed to want their children to follow an academic program which was counter to the program offered. One kindergarten teacher said,

> I think that most of that pressure came from parents and their concern. Like when I had a chance to talk to a few, like after classes and that, just their concerns about how their child is doing in certain areas, and what they're getting out of it, and this type of thing. So the pressure was on to TEACH, to get them to learn. (Maaskant, p. 37)

Another teacher hoped "not to feel that pressure from parents, but it sure is there!" (Mochoruk, p. 16). Coping with parental expectations certainly caused this teacher to examine her beliefs and values. Although she recognized the right of the parent to be involved in the child's education, she expressed her strong feelings thus: "I can accommodate them [parents], but I don't think you can lose your dignity" (Mochoruk, p. 16). Because parental expectations sometimes were in conflict with teacher beliefs and training, at times the teacher felt stifled. The music program of one second-year kindergarten teacher was criticized by parents: "We don't want music; we don't want our kids to learn music. We want them to do their "e"s, and the right way." The teacher reacted with, "I guess in a way it kind of burned me, you know. It's like I am going to be really careful about that" (Scott, p. 16).

A third source of stress was related to the school environment itself. Included here were expectations of other teachers, the location of the classroom, as well as school mores and regulations. Both interns perceived their relationship with staff as being precarious, particularly because staff members would evaluate them at the end of their internship. One said,

> I think I act differently because I have to get along with every single staff member.... I've had some problems already where I'm just so scared of stepping on somebody's toes, because ... they're going to be evaluating me. (Tucker, p. 29)

For the other intern, who was also evaluated by a number of people during the term, it was "kind of nerve-wracking" (Massing, p. 38). Because her approach to teaching differed from that of the school norms, Sarah, a second-year

teacher, was often in conflict with other teachers. The comment, "Yah, they are learning in spite of you," is an example of teacher reaction to Sarah's skepticism about the worth of the school's child discovery approach in math (Chamberlin, p. 49).

Though there was much mention of the support received from teachers and principals, some concern about having to please other teachers and the principal was expressed. As one teacher put it,

> If I want a job next year I have to be really aware and on the ball with what's going on this year. ... I am accountable for all that's happening in the classroom, and to the parents, and to the principals as well. (Maaskant, p. 37)

This teacher, however, was not the only one concerned about the tenuous nature of her position as a new teacher. What the future held was a concern for more than one teacher.

The demands of teaching at times appeared to be deflating, particularly when the rewards of the efforts made by teachers were seen as minimal. Cheryl, who had prepared for reporting to parents and had encountered "apparent parent apathy," responded this way:

> I am tired of evaluating kids; I am tired of doing report cards; I am tired of doing interviews; I am tired of all this extra stuff right now that's been going on all month, and still I am not done. (Scott, p. 29)

The striking effects of working in more than one school and being an intern moving from classroom to classroom were the feelings of dislocation, lack of or shared ownership, and lack of control. One intern who had developed a feeling of ownership and responsibility for one group but had to be in another classroom for the first period in both the morning and afternoon said, "That's the tough part, I think, with being an intern. If you're in more than one grade you lose a lot of things ... I miss being with the grade twos" (Massing, p. 34). Jill felt cheated because she had to move

from classroom to classroom (Tucker). Mochoruk described Kare's experience thus:

> She misses the staff meetings every Thursday afternoon at Rosewood School and is very concerned at not being informed about decisions made at these meetings. She has to deal with the expectations of two different administrators and adjust to their different personalities and styles of leadership. (p. 19)

And Kare's sense of not belonging was further compounded: "I don't have a parking spot which is another thing that really bugs me" (Mochoruk, p. 19). Though this latter issue may seem minor, when added to the tensions arising from the rapid transition involved in going from one school to a vastly different environment in another, this is potentially the proverbial last straw.

There was varying response to the mores and policies of the school. While Sarah weathered the criticism of fellow teachers, others succumbed to the perceived expectation of having to conform to what was "the way" and of having a very limited degree of freedom over what occurred in their classroom. For instance, during his third year of teaching, Kent said about a social studies kit he was using, "I didn't choose it. It was in place when I came in, and, uh, whatever was there, I just ... you know, whatever the students were using I just took over" (Massey, p. 29). Added to this was a second perception of where responsibility lay for what was taught: "All these things are done by specialists and consultants and boards and everything, and it's all approved by ... you know ... the Province." These perceptions, along with his beliefs that if there was something wrong, "then it's not my fault," raised the question of how much autonomy teachers feel they have in their classrooms (Massey, p. 29).

Sharla was faced with the task of organizing her program to accommodate special education students in her fourth grade classroom at a designated time

each day. Because this was a school policy decision she had no choice. She reported that the result of this policy was "it's getting to be a burden for the regular teachers" (Kysela, p. 18).

Another reality for some teachers was their feeling of isolation within their school. Isolation emanated both from physical separation and psychological distance because of the grade level distribution in the school.

Being a beginning teacher can certainly be a trying experience. Feeling uncertain about one's own ability to cope with the expectations of the children, colleagues, and parents, finding a balance between what is planned for the grade level and what the children can actually accomplish, pitting one's own beliefs and training against what exists in the school are some of the challenges which have to be faced. Fortunately, when hurdles are overcome or are in the process of being removed, there is another side of teaching.

The Positive Side of Teaching

Although many of the effects of teaching on the lives of these teachers were negative, a number of our teachers also reported they felt good about things like growing confidence, enjoying helping children, enjoying the respect of children, realizing how much they were learning and growing professionally, and receiving support from colleagues.

The growing confidence was probably the most noticeable positive effect of their initial teaching experience. Many of the teachers talked about how their experience helped to remove their anxiety about not knowing the "right thing to do." This pattern was noted with beginning interns and first-year teachers as well as with a fifth-year teacher who was teaching grade three for the first time. An intern whose regular teacher was sick for a week in December took charge of the class, and came out of the experience confident

that she could succeed with the full responsibilities of teaching. As she put it, "This week I learned that I could do it for myself, for sure" (Massing, p. 26).

A first-year teacher talked about the direct relationship between her growing confidence and her greater understanding of children. "I'm more willing to try new things and not be afraid how they might turn out. But I think I have a pretty good sense of how the children might respond to them as well" (Maaskant, p. 14). This personal knowledge resulting from experience in teaching seems to have been the major factor in changing anxiety and uncertainty into confidence. A teacher who rejected the school's math program in her second year of teaching had, toward the end of her first year, also begun using basal readers to supplement the school's whole language program. She said, "Now I feel confident that if someone tells me something to do, if I don't think it's valuable, then I won't do it.... Not that I have an abundance of experience, but I have one year, and I can sort of judge by that" (Chamberlin, p. 47).

Another second-year teacher recalled that she became so much more confident as a result of her first year's experience because "I handled it!" (Scott, p. 9). Even a fifth-year teacher who was teaching grade three for the first time found that the first six weeks of working with that grade had changed her from being overwhelmed to being "more comfortable with the whole material" (Stephanson, interview transcript, not in case study).

In summary, confidence is the most frequently mentioned positive effect of teaching experience for these teachers. Knowing they can succeed, being able to predict student responses, being able to draw on experience to plan things they are confident will work: all this helped them to face the future more confidently.

Several teachers were aware that another effect of their teaching experience was growth in their own learning about teaching. Several teachers commented on being able to do better planning, being able to use better class control methods, and knowing how to arrange the physical environment in the classroom. One teacher stated that she used to raise her voice a lot but now, as a result of "learning as I go," used signals and body language much more (Tucker, p. 21). Another kept anecdotal records of her students to help her get to know them and "seemed to know who needed a gentle touch and who needed firm guidance" (Blakey, p. 2). This teacher also rearranged her room in October of her second year of teaching because that year she could anticipate her space needs.

A third positive effect of teaching, also related to growth in confidence, was receiving support from colleagues. Several teachers were grateful to the principal for encouraging or praising them. One teacher who was having a particularly bad day with a six-year-old told her principal she felt like she had made no progress with the boy. The principal said, "Don't expect so much of yourself. You only have them so many hours a day and look what he's got at home" (Chamberlin, p. 56). Other teachers gave credit to the principal as their "greatest ego booster" (McNay, p. 45), as someone who gave them support for their choice of goals (Massing), or who in other ways was a positive force during the stressful early years of teaching.

Tracey, an intern, felt that the support she received from the teacher she worked with most was of great value to her.

> I enjoy working with Janine. I find I learn a lot from her ... and just being able to talk to somebody else about what you've done.... I said to her, "I am so lucky that I got you!" (Massing, p. 42)

Other teachers found their colleagues gave them a great deal of support. Sarah taught in a school where five other teachers also taught a combined class of grades one and two, and they generously shared their ideas and materials with her, jointly planned new themes with her, and worked with the librarian and principal to help her collect resources (Chamberlin). Sarah pointed out that friends in other schools had very different experiences when colleagues were possessive of their ideas, leaving new teachers feeling isolated. Indeed, several teachers in this study spoke of such isolation. In addition to support from principals and colleagues, other teachers mentioned the importance of support from their own parents, spouses, and roommates.

A final positive effect of teaching experience for several of these teachers was their enjoyment of working with children. In the literature on teaching, articles appear both on teacher burnout from stress and on teachers' recollections of the joy of teaching young children. Similarly, the stresses noted in the first part of this section were balanced somewhat by the frequent comments about fun with students, satisfaction from the attachments formed, and pleasure in the respect received from students.

A first-year kindergarten teacher spoke of the importance of the atmosphere of the school in determining how well teachers and students get to know one another. In one of her two schools this positive atmosphere was lacking, but about the other she said,

> I really enjoy teaching there. I have fun with the kids. And that's one of the main things ... that we're both enjoying what we're doing. And it's just such a warm atmosphere in the whole school. And it's just like one big happy family. (Maaskant, p. 41)

The relationship with children was also reported to be an important source of satisfaction for a second-year grade five teacher. She moved to a different

school for her second year and was aware of this move at the end of her first year. She recalled, "I liked it there. I cried in June.... I get really involved in what I do and I get very attached to kids" (Halabisky, interview transcripts, not in case study). This enjoyment of children was echoed by a first-year kindergarten teacher who "thinks of the children she teaches and finds it all worthwhile" (McNay, p. 40). This teacher found that "the time just flies by.... I am really enjoying it and the kids are really great" (McNay, p. 40). Other teachers mentioned enjoying their relationship with their students as well, some speaking of respect received from their students (Massing), others referring to a more global enjoyment of "their kids." From the evidence of stress and anxiety revolving around relationships, classroom management, and discipline noted in the first part of this section and in the literature, it is apparent that positive, sound relationships with their students are a major element in teacher career satisfaction.

Implications: Effects of Teaching

For the 14 teachers in our study, teaching has been a mixed blessing. The negative side has many aspects: the physical and emotional wear and tear resulting from the long, hard hours required; the tenuousness of their positions as interns and non-tenured teachers; the feelings of uncertainty, inadequacy, and lack of confidence about their teaching; the feeling of dislocation and isolation related to teaching in more than one classroom or school; the anxiety and occasional depression reflected in saying, "I've gotten nowhere"; the distress about criticism from parents; the many frustrations of having too much to do, too many student disruptions, plans that don't work out as expected, helplessness in the face of student abilities and readiness stages, and irritation from feeling unprepared for parts of their jobs.

Less frequent mention was made in the 14 case studies of the positive effects of teaching, but it is not clear whether this is an artifact of the methodology or a real phenomenon. The positive effects mentioned included: growing confidence, enjoyment of helping children and receiving their respect, pride from realizing how much they were learning and growing professionally, and receiving support from colleagues.

The findings about positive effects are encouraging. Nevertheless, the negative findings suggest the importance of preservice preparation and adequate follow-up support systems such as inservice programs tailored to teachers beginning their careers, and planned support from principals and other colleagues in these teachers' schools. Several of the teachers felt unprepared for working with parents in areas such as meeting with parents for conferences on pupils' progress, utilizing parent volunteers, and preparing report cards. Perhaps planning to include those kinds of experiences in the major practicum would make this a less stressful part of the early years of teaching. Some teachers were frustrated because they were unprepared to deal with the lower levels of student ability and readiness. Adding in-school experience, observations, teacher interviews, and diagnostic activities to the educational psychology courses in child development and learning theory might be helpful. Discipline was a source of frustration and anxiety for several teachers and may need to be dealt with more explicitly in preservice courses.

Secondly, these effects suggest the importance of inservice programs tailored specifically to the emotional stress experienced by teachers in their early years. The feelings of inadequacy, depression, and lack of confidence indicate a need for help from successful young teachers who can offer not only solutions to some of the teaching problems, but also the hope

that with a little more experience will come more success and confidence. Inservice leaders with some training in group therapy might be helpful as well.

Finally, these case studies point clearly to the key roles played by the principal and experienced teachers in the school in providing vitally important support for recent graduates of teacher preparation programs. Among the case study teachers were those whose principals praised them for choosing the right goals despite parent criticism; but there were also teachers who felt their principals left them isolated and without support, seemingly unaware of their need for praise and encouragement. Again, many of these 14 teachers spoke warmly of the help they had received from experienced teachers who generously shared their ideas and materials, leaving them saying, "I was lucky I had you." These effects suggest the need for principals to plan to meet regularly with new teachers, to specifically plan to provide praise and encouragement, to ensure that help is provided with teaching problems, and to help them become accepted members of the team, feeling they belong. If the three aspects of preservice, inservice, and in-school support are provided, perhaps the balance between positive and negative effects of beginning teaching experience can be tipped more to the joys and satisfactions.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

The recommendations which follow grow out of the case studies. Each set of recommendations is grounded in concerns raised by the teachers who were the subjects of those case studies. Their concerns were affirmed by the members of the research team and were further supported by research reported in the literature on teacher education.

The recommendations presume something of a reconceptualization of teacher education programs, and they describe something of what a reconceptualized program would embody. They presume that a program is much more than the collection of courses it seems to be for many of our former students, and that it should be characterized by a wholeness and integrity of intent, structure, and professional working relationships. Dichotomies such as the university versus the field, preservice versus inservice, and theory versus practice, though to some degree still useful, must come to be seen less as rigid and delimited aspects of teacher education programs, and more as interrelated aspects of one deeply contextualized, integrated experience. The recommendations presume that teacher education will come to be seen not as a four-year program at the university but as a lifelong process that requires continuing reflection and involvement with professional educational opportunities.

The recommendations concern five areas: the students who are admitted to teacher education programs (Nature of the Student Body); the instructors who teach education students, and the places where instruction occurs (Instructional Resources); the integration of the student teacher into the university program, and the induction of the new teacher into the school

(Socialization); program elements, and how student teachers are supported and enabled to develop professionally (Continuing Professional Development).

Some of the recommendations may appear to overlap. This is a natural result of focusing on teacher education from a variety of perspectives. Together, the recommendations point particularly to a teacher education characterized by new kinds of relationships. As recommendations, they are meaningful and valuable only insofar as teachers and teacher educators become open to these new relationships and to new ways of thinking about teacher education.

1. The Nature of the Student Body

Several of the teachers spoke of the qualities they believed people who enter into education should have. One felt that it was important for a teacher's primary goal to be "to do the best you could, without any thought of the money" (Stephanson, p. 9). Another claimed that "the key to being a teacher is flexibility, in order to keep in step with the times" (Everett-Turner, p. 4). Another felt "you really need to know kids." A couple were adamant that "teachers are born."

Over and over the teachers spoke of playing school as kids, working with groups of children in summer programs, and part-time jobs involving children (e.g., teaching swimming, dancing, Sunday school). These experiences seemed to solidify their desire to become teachers.

Previous experience with children seemed to be such an important factor to many of the teachers that it appears this may be a desirable prerequisite for all students desiring entry into the faculty. One researcher said,

> Experiences with children in situations where the student is in control (e.g., Parks and Recreation programs, teaching swimming, dancing) versus practicum where the cooperating teacher remains in control, seem to be important. Should this become a prerequisite or co-requisite for the B.Ed.. program? (Everett-Turner, p. 38)

There seemed to be considerable support for a quota in education faculties as long as it was determined by a selection process whereby more factors than solely academic achievement would be considered.

While there was a plea to attract top quality students to the faculty, one researcher questioned whether it was possible to "attract high caliber people if the pay for teachers is lower than the high status occupations." Another suggested not admitting students to the Faculty of Education until they had successfully completed a year of liberal arts.

An Alberta Education document supports the implementation of admission standards other than marks. It suggested that,

> selection procedures at the time of admission and screening activities during the early years of the pre-service program should include identification of the personal attributes of a successful teacher, e.g. insight, enthusiasm, imagination and creativity, maturity and judgement, and tolerance and understanding of others. (1984, p. 25)

An earlier document, Theory to Practice, urges the selection of top quality candidates for entry to faculties of education:

> Students recruited to and selected for teacher preparation programs should be among the ablest of their age cohorts, comparable in ability and motivation to those who plan traditional high status occupations. (Alberta Education, 1981, p. 25)

Currently, the admission requirements to the Faculty of Education at the University of Alberta "must meet or exceed the University's general admission requirements ... with an average of 65% or more" (McIntosh, 1987). A 1984 report by the Deans of Education at the three Alberta universities

recommended that the average be raised to 70%.

A report of the Joint Board of Teacher Education in British Columbia (1981) recommended that,

> the general goals of education should be the source of criteria for selection of students. The report espouses the principles that both external selection and self selection should be used in admission policy and that members of the professional community, as well as university faculties, should be involved in decisions respecting selection and retention of teacher candidates. (Hrynyk, 1984, p. 71)

Recommendations

1.1 Entrance requirements to the Faculty of Education should consider more than the academic record and might include a requirement for prior successful experiences in working with children.

1.2 Entrance requirements to the Faculty of Education might consider personal qualities such as respect for children, enthusiasm, flexibility, tolerance and commitment.

1.3 A quota system should be adopted to limit the number of students entering the Faculty of Education.

2. Instructional Resources

If instructional resources are seen as encompassing both personnel and facilities, then the question arises of who should teach education courses and where these courses should be taught.

The teachers in this study had some fairly specific comments about who should teach education courses. Often the usefulness of a course was seen in relation to the professor:

> It really depends on the professor.... I've had some really good ones and I've had bad ones, and the bad ones are the ones that read out of textbooks or just give assignments and have lots of class presentations [by the students].... I would rather have

> professors share information about what they've found useful and why you do things. (McNay, p. 18)

> I had one who really made you think. Not so much a role model ... I was very conscious that for once I couldn't just write what they wanted me to say and get a good mark. (Mochoruk, from transcript)

> My literature course was good.... I really re spected her. She scared me to death. You have to feel a little bit intimidated.... to do your best work. (Mochoruk, from transcript)

A number referred directly to the professors sharing their experiences.

> I really like the courses where the profs. share what they have done. I find those really enjoyable, and you learn a lot from what they have done and what they have found has worked. (McNay, p. 18)

This desire for hearing "what it's really like out there" often seemed best met by sessions with practicing teachers as special guests and as instructors who had had recent experiences in schools.

> I really enjoyed the modules, especially when they asked teachers from the system to come in and teach.... The professors were good, but I got a lot more pertinent information from teachers.... Theory's good but there's only so much theory you can use in the classroom. (Massing, p. 3-4)

> Rcle models seemed to play an important part. Professors' commitment to, enthusiasm for, and clear presentation of material had a positive impact.

> She was so convincing and her beliefs made you believe.... I'm going to do it because she presented it so well and with such enthusiasm ... it makes you want to do the same. (McNay, p. 16)

Teaching methods that were spoken of in class by a professor who also modeled those methods were better remembered than theory given in isolation.

> I remember Dr. Cameron saying it once. "Oh, all you people who sit right in the middle where I can see you ... I lose all you guys at the back." I'll go home at night now and think, "Hey, I didn't even see that person today hardly. I'll have to do something about that tomorrow." (Everett-Turner, p. 14)

On the other hand, some teachers spoke of the lack of desirable role modeling pertinent to presentation of material.

> They teach you in university by standing up there and talking.... You come out and try to teach elementary students like that and only 10% is retained. (Massing, p. 6)

The impersonal aspect of some courses was of great concern to several; large classes and lack of meaningful personal interaction between professors and students were of particular concern.

> The teachers at university were not really supportive. They were never available. But you know, that's university. (Mochoruk, p. 17)

> The student has to make it on his own without any help or sympathy from the professor. (Chamberlin, p. 75)

Clearly, cooperating teachers and faculty consultants also play a significant role in shaping an education student's teaching style. Usually student teaching was seen as a positive experience, but not always.

> Practicum is where you learn the most.... Actually getting out and seeing it, like on the job training. (Everett-Turner, p. 15)

> I don't get the ideas from the University or anything. It's mostly my own. (Mochoruk, from transcript)

> The teacher's and especially the consultant's expectations were too high. I'm still suffering from the trauma of the experience. (Tucker, p. 11)

Based on what the teachers in the study were saying of their experiences, the researchers saw a number of implications for university teaching in relation to qualifications, how to teach, and interaction between staff and students.

What seemed important was that professors have a sound understanding of their subject matter and are able to relate this effectively to students both theoretically and practically. How best can professors provide realistic first-hand experiences from classrooms? Some suggestions included holding classes in public schools for several weeks to develop a feel for life in the school; providing in-class experiences with children so instructor and students experience working with children; using teachers on temporary leave from the school system; and, facilitating (or mandating) regular "teaching leaves" for professors (e.g., job trading between university staff and school

systems). It seems clear that closer liaison with the field is highly desirable in terms of keeping professors in touch with children and what life is like out there in the real world. It also seems important that university staff and cooperating teachers be selected carefully and that mechanisms be in place to ensure cooperation between both parties with respect to expectations for and evaluation of student teachers. While course instructors are expected to obtain student evaluation of the instructor on a regular basis, there is currently no mechanism in place for student evaluation of cooperating teachers and faculty consultants. Perhaps this needs to be considered in the future.

The qualities that students found inspirational in professors were enthusiasm for the material being presented, relevant examples from the field, modeling of desired procedures, assignments and activities requiring students to think for themselves, and high but reasonable expectations. One researcher wrote,

> As instructors, we perhaps need to attend more to helping students examine things critically rather than trying to sell particular teaching methods and materials. (McNay, p. 44)

While some teachers commented on the impersonal, non-caring attitudes of professors, others noted positive personal caring and respect shown them by faculty. There was no doubt that the teachers felt the latter was preferable. Therefore, it seems important to consider ways in which students and professors can interact socially or informally and get to know one another. This could be achieved through smaller class sizes and structuring the class in a way which would encourage students to get to know the staff and each other.

The teachers and researchers involved in this study were not alone in recommending that students need the opportunity to reflect on their own

education and make decisions appropriate to furthering their own growth. In A Future Paradigm for Teacher Education, Tafel (1984) states that

> students should be involved in goal setting and program planning in order that they might understand the underpinning values of a teacher education program. (p. 1)

He goes on to suggest that the teacher education program

> should help students ... develop a sense of collegiality with others in education and within the faculty. Cooperation rather than competition should be the guide. (p. 1)

This cooperation could refer to students working together on projects within classes, but it could also refer to cooperation by professors, teachers, students, and children in designing educational experiences.

Taylor (1981) lends support for the provision of carefully guided experiences in which faculty, students, and practitioners work together with children as individuals and in groups. The Holmes Report, Tomorrow's Teachers (1986), recommends that consideration be given to revising the undergraduate curriculum so that future teachers study the subjects which they will teach under professors who model good teaching.

Recommendations

2.1 Professors need to be in touch with classroom life. Ways need to be explored to enable professors to spend time regularly in school classrooms.

2.2 Professors need to exhibit qualities desirable in all teachers: enthusiasm for subject matter, concern for and understanding of students, the ability to challenge students to examine ideas critically, and the ability to present materials in a variety of ways.

2.3 Student teaching should be viewed as an integral and coordinated part of the B.Ed.. program. Cooperating teachers and faculty consultants need to work closely in establishing expectations, planning field experiences, and

supervising and evaluating student teachers. Teachers who are teaching in ways consistent with current research need to be chosen as cooperating teachers.

2.4 Teams of university professors and practicing teachers should be organized to offer courses in school settings. As well, educators from the field--teachers, consultants, and administrators--should be involved in the offering of education courses on campus.

2.5 Throughout the B.Ed. program, students need more opportunities to take responsibility for their own learning. They need to be allowed and encouraged to take risks, experiment, try new ideas, and reflect on their developing teaching styles and philosophies.

The teachers we interviewed commented on the value of the practicum in their teacher education program, raising the question as to where teacher education should take place. Several suggested that this was where their most important learning took place. For example, Donna, a first year teacher, summed up the way many teachers felt about practicum: "I think I learned more (there) than ... in any other ... course" (Sande, p. 27). Another said, "I would have been happy doing practicum all the time" (Everett-Turner, p. 15). In particular, the practicum provided a rich source of practical ideas for the teachers we interviewed.

> Cheryl [a second-year kindergarten teacher] learned many techniques, attitudes, and methods of organization which she is presently using in her own kindergarten. For example, her circle time is patterned after the practicum model in that both include date charts, pattern calendars, number lines, and counting the days using unifix cubes. Interest centers ... play a prominent role in Cheryl's kindergarten, as they did in the practicum model; her technique of gaining attention by flashing the room lights was also borrowed from her practicum.... Cheryl said that she [also] learned the difference between working with boys and

> working with girls, and how to write anecdotal records during her practical training. (Scott, p. 8)

Virtually all the teachers interviewed would endorse the following recommendations made by Shirley, a second year teacher with a grade five class.

> The student teacher should go out as much as possible in order to get to know the class. That's an important part of teaching.
>
> Only have excellent teachers as cooperating teachers! They would have to be recognized by the principal or the board or whatever. To be a co operating teacher you would have to have some sort of reference from somebody. (Halabisky, p. 25)

Practical experience, including work in classrooms and work with children, is so highly valued by teachers that many of them supported in one way or another an increased practical component in their program, possibly in the form of more practicum. Suggestions included:

> Maybe I liked that class because we got to go out in the schools. (Chamberlin, p. 33)
>
> I would have learned more ... by being out in different schools and kindergartens and ... just watching kids. (McNay, p. 15)
>
> More university classes should be ... in the schools.... Like, really find out what's happening. (Chamberlin, p. 30)
>
> So, I would say ... a lot more time spent in schools. (Stephanson, p. 64)

The connection between theory and practice, which is discussed in some detail below, can only be made, one teacher suggested, when there is a close connection in time between the two: "It was good to have the theory and then go into the classroom but it was too far apart" (Mochoruk, p. 28). Chamberlin summed up Sarah's experience:

> Sarah's need for practical ideas on how to teach, the everyday teaching knowledge of what materials to use, what activities to plan, how to manage student behavior, could best be met by school-based experiences, she felt. This was supported by her positive experience in the school-based ESL, Ed CI 415, and practicum components of her program. (p. 35)

A number of teachers mentioned the benefits to be obtained from opportunities to integrate theory and practice during school-based activities.

> We were involved in one of the schools downtown, where we went out and set up certain learning experiences. We did it in the science area for a number of children and we had them for a couple of hours that day. So we got to take them and try out all our good ideas on them and just see what happened. And so it really hit home for me ... that's where things started to change, because I was taking on responsibility as a teacher. (Maaskant, p. 12)

One would expect that the practicum would allow for similar opportunities to try out theory and ideas. Certainly this was the case for some teachers. Others were less satisfied.

> I didn't feel I had the freedom to learn to put into practice what I had been learning because I had to work in the framework she [the cooperating teacher] had set up. (Maaskant, p. 39)

Interestingly, one teacher suggested that some school experience should precede entry to the education program.

> People should have to have some experience in a classroom before they go into their teacher training.... They should do something so that they have an idea of what they're getting themselves into. (Stephanson, p. 64)

But another indicated that some preparation for school experience would be needed.

> I wouldn't want to go into any practical thing just cold. It was O.K. to go in and observe and ... do little housekeeping things.... That's good, but I wouldn't want to be fresh out of high school and be put in practicum right away. (Scott, pp. 8-9)

As well as more practical experience during the undergraduate teacher education program, some teachers recommended additional practical experience in the form of an internship program. Several of the teachers in the project had participated in internship experiences and two of these, Tracey and Jill, were currently employed as interns. All these teachers seemed to agree on the value of the internship and to see a definite place for it as a part of the

teacher preparation process. Tracey saw the internship as preparing her to teach in a far different way than she might otherwise have taught.

> My class would be much more traditional because I don't think I could have handled being a first year teacher and teaching the way Janine does. (Massing, p. 18)

Jill had more reservations about her intern status, but commented that she was, on the whole, enjoying it. One of the kindergarten teachers, Kim, had worked in an internship for six months before accepting her current position because when she graduated she "still didn't have the confidence to go into a classroom and take over everything and felt the need for more experience" (Maaskant, p. 7). She had appreciated the placement and the learnings she derived from her internship. Ann was in the position of having a full-time intern in her classroom. She was enthusiastic about the possibilities of the internship program.

> That's why I think in a lot of ways this intern program is going to be so beneficial for a lot of teachers because they're going to see what you do on day one, what you do on day fifty-five, what you do on, you know, day two hundred. That kind of thing. You know, going to get a sampling of it because even student teaching you come in for six weeks in the middle of, you know, things are still running. (Stephanson, from transcript)

Tracey felt that the internship had sufficient value that it should be credited toward a professional certificate or considered as a fifth year of university. Another teacher, Sarah, felt that

> the university program could be improved by adding a one-year internship, but keeping a 4-year program.... "If you are going to be a teacher, a one-year internship would benefit you 10 times more." (Chamberlin, p. 35)

Both Tracey and Jill would have agreed that not all parts of the internship were desirable. The pressure of constant evaluation was a problem that they both acknowledged. Tracey had talked with other interns whom she felt were being abused in their positions. The potential for learning in her situation,

however, made it a valuable experience for her and served as an indication of the potential of such a program.

Responding to the call of most of the teachers for greater practical experience in the B.Ed.. program, many of the researchers had suggestions as to how this might be offered. These suggestions concern three areas of the program and involve increasing or improving the practical component in association with the curriculum and instruction (CI) and other courses, during the practicum itself and through an internship program.

Some researchers agreed with the teachers they interviewed that more practical experience and more involvement with children throughout the program would be desirable. These researchers suggested the student teachers need more and earlier opportunities to teach in classrooms in order to make career choices and to develop teaching styles and philosophies of teaching. One researcher, however, noted that although the teacher she worked with was one of those who recommended more practical experience in the teacher education program, she (the researcher) thought that such experience would not have been particularly helpful to the teacher making this recommendation, who was very successfully into her second year of teaching. One researcher suggested that something akin to model schools be developed in which teachers and university faculty members would teach on rotation. Several researchers recommended establishing school laboratory settings for curriculum and instruction courses and for courses in educational psychology and child development, so that theory and practice might be more closely related. This might mean, one researcher suggested, that some academic terms should be school-based, with curriculum and instruction courses and practica staffed jointly by professors and teachers.

Other researchers suggested that the practicum experience was so influential and important in the professional development of the teachers they worked with that it should receive very high priority indeed, and that it must be organized to provide the highest quality teaching experience. On the whole, some researchers suggested, practicum would be an even more valuable learning experience if follow-up at the university were provided to allow for evaluation, critique, and discussion of the practicum experience. Some researchers suggested that students need experiences in varied settings, traditional as well as non-traditional, to become aware of alternatives. One researcher felt that the role of the faculty consultants seemed unarticulated, and suggested that the emphasis in practicum be on inservice with the cooperating teachers, leaving to them the task of evaluating student teachers.

Some teachers saw practicum experiences as the most useful part of their program, while others were disappointed that they had not been able to apply the theory they had learned. The implication in either case is that the quality of the practicum experience is crucial. Cooperating teachers should be carefully selected and the faculty consultant should work closely with the teacher and the student. Several researchers recommended the establishment of an internship program for newly graduated teachers. Careful selection of internship settings and direct involvement of university faculty in the program were also recommended.

Current literature concerning teacher education supports concern for the nature of the schools and staff offering practicum experience.

> The schools in which students undertake their practical experience and in which beginning teachers serve internship and induction periods should demonstrate a genuine interest in the improvement of teacher preparation consistent with university-based programs, and directed by staff with appropriate training

> and release time to undertake supervisory responsibilities. (Alberta Education, 1981, p. 26)

Because the quality of the instruction that students encounter in their classroom experiences is critical, Tafel (1984) proposes that

> those who supervise students at both the college or university or clinical site levels ought to give careful consideration to what values, attitudes and beliefs the clinical experience is perpetuating and plan alternative experiences with a variety of learners in both traditional school settings as well as non-school or non-traditional settings. (p. 5)

The idea of lab schools staffed by practicing teachers who would at the same time be closely associated with the university has also been suggested:

> Clinical schools should be staffed for the preparation of teachers. Their role may not be unlike the role of teaching hospitals. The teachers in these schools should hold joint appointments with the Faculty of Education. (Carnegie,1986, p. 76)

Further, Cruikshank (1985) recommends that "faculty should make more use of controlled clinical and laboratory experiences." These might well be closely tied to curriculum and instruction courses, and other courses in the teacher education program.

Concerning an internship program, the National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education recommended in 1985 that "there be a period of at least a year of internship."

Recommendations

Teacher education in Canadian faculties of education is perhaps never attempted without a substantial practical component. Nevertheless, the teachers and researchers involved in this study are supported by the results of other research when they suggest that the practical components of the teacher education program might be more fully developed. Thus, we recommend that:

2.6 The length, nature, quality, staffing, and timing of the practicum experience should be re-examined, and articulation between this experience and the campus-based courses and staff should be heightened. Practicum experiences, for example, should be organized in such a way that students have regular opportunities to bring their "real" teaching experiences to the university classroom.

2.7 Practicum settings should be carefully chosen for their capacity to exemplify desirable teaching practices and beliefs. The student, teacher, and faculty consultant must work closely together in these settings and their roles must be clearly defined.

2.8 The possibility of incorporating an extended school experience into the early part of the teacher education program should be examined.

2.9 The possibility of an internship or some type of extended induction program for all beginning teachers should be examined.

2.10 Opportunities for more and varied school-based instruction (within the CI courses, for example) might be created and tried out.

3. <u>The Socialization of Teachers</u>

Socialization into the profession begins during the first year of the B.Ed.. program. A number of students found the initial arts and science components "a frustrating digression on the road to becoming a teacher" (Scott, p. 6). Their very reason for coming to university was to teach children. This first year with minimal contact with children and few education courses seemed irrelevant and impersonal. The large introductory classes made it difficult to get to know staff and fellow students and did little to help the students identify with a career in education. For some

this led to statements like, "You go to university and they [professors] don't care" (Chamberlin, p. 32). Another teacher found the first year devastating.

> I cried every day during that first year. I found university quite trying actually in many ways.... The biggest thing was the bureaucracy.... So often I couldn't get the thing I wanted to do.... You figure that you're shaping your career.... You want it to go the way that you plan it. (Sande, p. 28)

Donna, however, felt she actually had little say in what was going to happen to her and little opportunity to shape her program in ways useful and meaningful to her.

Once the students entered their second year they began to take education courses. For some, like Cheryl in the early childhood program, this was a positive experience.

> Through some fluke ... a whole class of us had all the same courses, starting in our second year. We went from room to room and we got to know one another really well and we became just like a family.... You didn't feel like you were in the midst of 25,000 people. (Scott, p. 7)

Cheryl's experience shows the importance of feeling you belong, of being part of a group. This seemed to be lacking for many of the teachers in the study. For others, many of the education courses were seen as being as irrelevant and impersonal as the Arts and Science components.

> I took a Math CI course and it was in a lecture theatre and it was with however many kids you have in a lecture theatre. And this is a CI course, a methods course.... I just don't feel I was taught enough. (Stephanson, p. 10)

The experiences that seemed most positive were those in which course content was integrated with actual work with children. "My language arts course was good in that it had us ... working with children" (EverettTurner, p. 15); "I liked that class because we got to go out into the schools" (Chamberlin, p. 32); "You get ideas from other teachers and from actually teaching with kids" (Everett-Turner, p. 11).

It seemed important to these students that if you were going to be a teacher you needed lots of experience being with children. Frequent mention was made of the difference the professor made to the impact a course had on students. From Sandra's comments we gain an understanding of the impact instructors had on her.

> I think a lot depends on your professor. I've had some really good ones and I've had bad ones.... I really like courses where the profs. share what they have done.... She was so convincing and her beliefs made you believe. (McNay, p. 16, 18)

In another case, Scott spoke of the impact professors had on his teaching.

Two professors had a special impact on Cheryl during her four years at university. From one she learned such practical ideas as designing learning centers, preparing lesson plans, and integrating math and language for young children. Her other professor did something even more important--she gave her dignity.

> Even though I didn't have my B.Ed.. and I hadn't graduated, I still felt like a teacher in her class, an adult, an equal just learning from her. She was willing to listen to where you were coming from as a student and adapt and change her course. (Scott, p. 6-7)

While Donna felt she had little opportunity to affect what happened to her, Cheryl seemed to feel she could have some input into how her program was developing. If students are going to identify with their B.Ed.. program it seems important that they have the opportunity and responsibility for providing constructive input and setting goals.

If teachers are to be "reflective practitioners," capable of assessing their own strengths and weaknesses and able to identify appropriate ways to build up expertise and skill, then this orientation needs to be provided for students during their B.Ed.. program. Without such reflection it is doubtful

whether students will become lifelong learners who continue to assess, reflect upon, and refine their teaching practices.

While some beginning teachers used a trial and error approach to developing their teaching styles, others were guided by a personal philosophy of education. Although this did not guarantee success, it did provide an ideal to work toward. Molly, a kindergarten teacher, felt her philosophy of education had grown out of her work in early childhood education and had helped her plan her whole approach to teaching.

> It [the early childhood program] gave you that onus of responsibility and it made you stop and think that you had to really think about your philosophy of education because ... you have to be convinced of everything you're doing. And I think that emphasis is really good. (Blakey, p. 5)

Another kindergarten teacher also spoke of how her philosophy had evolved.

> In one of my early childhood classes in my fourth year we were just talking about philosophies and how important it is when you got to interviews. They'll ask you what is your philosophy of education ... so my professor actually told us to sit down and write out our philosophies, just roughly ... write down what you thought was important in your classroom and in school in general. So we did that and then we came back to class and we shared them with just our small group, and everybody came up with more or less the same points because we went to the early childhood programs since our second year.... And you got the same instructors and the same professors, and it just comes across. And when we sat down, it was funny how we all just had the same philosophies really worked out. (McNay, p. 16)

While it is questionable whether every teacher should leave the faculty with the same philosophy, it does seem important that every student within the faculty should be able to articulate some beliefs about education that will guide his or her initial teaching experiences. This should be seen as the beginning of an ever-evolving philosophy that will be constantly reviewed and refined as new experiences and knowledge are internalized.

Recommendations

Unless students identify with, see as relevant, and value their professional preparation, many potential learning experiences will be negative. As Sarah said, "Maybe these professors were telling me all these things were going to happen and I just wasn't listening" (Chamberlin, p. 30). The following recommendations address some of the ways in which the B.Ed.. program might become more meaningful to students.

3.1 Education students need to be oriented to the nature of the program as a whole so they can better understand the meaning of the various components and the contribution each should make to their becoming an educated person and teacher.

3.2 Students should be involved with faculty in goal setting and program planning activities in order to build commitment to the profession and understanding of its goals and responsibilities.

3.3 Throughout the B.Ed.. program, students need more opportunities to take responsibility for their own learning. They need to be allowed and encouraged to take risks, experiment, try new ideas, and reflect on their developing teaching styles and philosophies.

3.4 Consideration should be given to a variety of organizational patterns within the faculty that would enable groups of staff and students to work more closely together over an extended period of time. This would help to foster a professional identification with, and a sense of belonging to, the Faculty of Education.

3.5 Faculty members need to share how their own philosophies of education have developed over their careers so students can see education as a dynamic, evolving process.

The early socialization of teachers into the school system was raised by one researcher as a possible explanation for a teacher's failure to make the changes he had hoped to make in his teaching style.

> Teachers, it is believed, have been inducted into this subculture from the day they started school and, for the most part, will teach as they have been taught. Given this view, it is no wonder Kent is having difficulty. His exposure to models other than teacher-dominated has been limited, the support for his efforts inconsistent, and when his efforts run into difficulty he draws upon what he knows to have carried the day in the past. (Massey, pp. 33-34)

In the case of Sarah, the researcher was particularly impressed with the extent to which the teaching environment provided a consistent socializing influence.

> The unanimity of teacher held norms was certainly an atypical situation in which to begin teaching, and prevented Sarah from hearing from teachers holding alternative views, or subgroups with competing norms. Rather, there seemed to be only one right perspective on teaching for anyone on the Purple School staff. (Chamberlin, p. 23)

Through discussions with the researcher, this teacher became more aware of the socialization process, of the fact that she had been "streamlined into their way of thinking" (Chamberlin, p. 21). Such discussion, as part of the preservice training program, might help students to recognize and evaluate their role in the socialization process. Students might be helped to understand change processes and how they can go about making change in future work situations.

Zeichner and Tabachnick (1985) suggest that a Wisconsin program helps prepare students to analyze the socialization process during their practicum,

examining the school history and beliefs in order to see how these are passed on to neophyte teachers. Would such preparation help graduates to analyze socialization during their first teaching experience and be more critically selective of the transmission of beliefs and norms?

The process of developing a philosophy of education might provide education students with a basis for making reasoned judgements about the practices they encounter in schools. As McNay commented, this cannot be a superficial process.

> A philosophy is more than a set of "I believes" gathered together from a few manuals and curriculum guides in an area, or from some relatively limited classroom experience. Students need some way of grounding these beliefs, or critically examining them, and of becoming aware of conflicts, inconsistencies, and questions related to them. Certainly, one may begin to develop a philosophy by sitting down and writing out what "I believe," but it is only the beginning. I think we need to teach our students where to go from there, if we are to be truly intellectually honest in our teaching. (p. 43)

Based on his study of beginning teachers, and extensive review of the literature, Zeichner (1983) concluded that

> beginning teacher socialization is highly context specific, dependent in each instance on the unique interaction of people who possess varying levels of skills and capabilities and unique individual histories with differing school contexts. (p. 4)

He suggested that

> the process of "institutionalization" or the internalization of institutional norms is only one of several possible outcomes of the socialization process. Evidence exists that behavioral conformity and value commitment do not always go together and that first-year teachers can have a creative impact on the school and survive. (p. 43)
>
> The literature also indicates that the effects of the university are not necessarily "washed out" by school experience during the first year as it is commonly believed. (p. 43)

Zeichner proposed that the teacher education program help students to recognize the socialization process. The first practicum, he suggested, should focus partly on the analysis of school norms, practices, and the

socialization of new members. Lanier and Little (1985) suggested that it is important for the teacher education program to raise selfconsciousness and that research be undertaken to determine how this might best be accomplished. Tafel (1984) recommended that

> students be involved in goal setting and program planning in order that they might understand the underpinning values of a teacher education program. (p. 1)

Through a better understanding of the processes of socialization and a firmly grounded philosophy, beginning teachers can become the teachers they truly want to be.

Recommendations

The nature of the work situation, the unique characteristics of the beginning teacher, and the nature of the university experience would all seem to be important determinants of the course of socialization.

3.6 The teacher education program should help students to recognize and examine socialization processes as they relate to their own teaching experiences. It should help provide students with a basis for reasoned choice from among the philosophies and practices which they encounter in their professional lives.

3.7 Faculty members should assist students in analyzing school norms and practices and the socialization processes that they encounter in their practicum experiences and during their first years of teaching.

4. Program Elements

As the teachers we interviewed talked about the various aspects of their teacher education programs, it became clear that many of them had difficulty making connections and seeing relationships between the noneducation courses in the early years of their programs and the education

courses which they took later. But many discussed a gap between practicum and education courses as well, and between the different curriculum and instruction courses themselves.

For example, for Cheryl, a second year kindergarten teacher, "the requirement to take first-year arts courses was a frustrating digression on the road to becoming a teacher" (Scott, p. 6). Comments such as the following suggest that, indeed, many teachers find the general arts requirement in their program more or less irrelevant to their interest in becoming teachers:

> I can't think of any course outside of [the education courses] that had anything to do with teaching. (Halabisky, p. 24)
>
> I don't think you have to take all that stuff if ... you've got set in your mind you are going to be a teacher. (Chamberlin, p. 35)
>
> [In the] first year there [were] a lot of courses that I don't think really helped me for teaching young kids-your histories and your biologies--but that is something you have to do. (McNay, p. 15)

Only Donna, a first-year teacher, expressed explicit appreciation of the value of this part of the undergraduate program.

> Donna: [English] was a challenge and it improved me.
>
> Researcher: I think the basic logic is that we might become better teachers if we've had some [general arts] as part of the program.
>
> Donna: Right. And I see that a little more [now]. (Sande, p. 22)

Donna also expressed an appreciation for her educational foundations courses, an appreciation that, again, was not shared by many other teachers.

> Researcher: [Does a course like the history of education] help put the teaching profession into a better perspective?
>
> Donna: Yes, and I think that if you're going to go into a profession you should know its history. In that regard it's ... useful. (Sande, p. 21)

Sandra, a first-year kindergarten teacher, was one of the few who shared some of Donna's feelings: "It's good to have ... your psychologies, sociologies,

[or a variety of CIs] ... to give you a broad look at what's involved in education" (McNay, p. 17). The implication arising from these comments by the teachers involved in this study is that something needs to be done to make the general arts requirement and the educational foundations courses in the B.Ed.. program a more meaningful and valued experience in the teacher education process.

Concerning the curriculum and instruction courses, the teachers suggested that two kinds of integration might be attempted in order to make them more meaningful and practical: integration between the CI courses and the practicum, and integration among the CI courses themselves. Essentially, this is the question of theory versus practice.

Certainly the relationship between theory and practice is one of the classic dilemmas in teacher education, and all the teachers in this research project expressed concerns about the theory/practice issue. A few felt that the theory was mostly a waste.

> I knew I wanted to teach and I felt I knew children and that sort of thing and a lot of the theory and stuff I thought was just garbage, especially when you had it again and again and again. (Everett-Turner, p. 15)

The majority, however, saw a place for theory but felt the need for a closer integration through observation or work with children.

> I would have learned more ... by being out in the different schools and kindergartens and just maybe even taking observation notes, watching kids, seeing what they are learning from play and things like that, rather than reading "play is valuable ... we learn from play." I still think you need that theory somewhere along the line ... but [it would be better] to see it in action and maybe be involved in it more. (McNay, p. 15)

The teachers saw the format used for the presentation of theory as critical to its application. Large lecture presentations were seen as generally inappropriate.

> I took my Math CI in a lecture theatre with ... two hundred people. And you went in there, you had a textbook, and you took notes, kind of thing. Well, that's hardly teaching you how to teach math to grade one kids. (Stephanson, from transcript)

These teachers felt that it was important that instructors model the teaching strategies that they were advocating for use with children. Chamberlin, for example, comments about Sarah, a first year teacher:

> One of the shortcomings of the university program which Sarah sees now that she's using themes to organize her language, science, social studies, art, and music planning is that the university taught discrete courses in those areas, which didn't prepare her for integrated planning. (Chamberlin, p. 31)

Sarah herself said

> All those CIs were distinct and that's the way they taught us [how] we should teach. Like, maybe if those CIs were integrated or something then we could see what was happening.... [The professors should] show people that you don't have to teach things separately.... Have those professors model that. (Chamberlin, p. 31-32)

Another teacher, a graduate from the Early Childhood program, commented that because her courses had been organized using a center approach, she was able to understand why such an approach works.

Some of the teachers complained that the content of their university courses did not correspond to the real world of teaching. A teacher who had graduated from the Special Education minor encountered the term "opportunity class" for the first time during a job interview.

> At the university the people could have known how the school board, for example, categorized their Special Ed. kids, so that we were sort of familiar with those kinds of things. (Stephanson, from transcript)

The same teacher observed that the two biggest trends within the school systems, the whole language approach and teacher effectiveness training, were virtually ignored by the university (Stephanson, pp. 64-65). Another mentioned discrepancies with regard to planning processes.

> I find a lot of stuff is new. I have to re-learn a lot. Like everything, all the lesson planning, that unit planning and year planning that I learned at university ... none of them are used

> now, within our school board. It's a totally different way of planning from what I learned and it's a lot easier too. (Halabisky, p. 22)

The problem of relevance appears to lie at the heart of the theory/practice dilemma.

> What they give you ... before student teaching, just kind of goes out one ear.... It doesn't apply to anything. (Tucker, p. 24)

> And maybe these professors were telling me all these things were going to happen and I just wasn't listening. (Chamberlin, p. 30)

For at least some teachers, some of the theory eventually did become relevant. Mark, who is quoted earlier in this section regarding "theory as garbage," looked back on notes to find answers to teaching problems.

> If I see a problem or see something that I'm not sure of, sometimes I go back to my notes at home and go through things--and maybe never find it--usually I go back and think, "Well, so-and-so said something about her, I had a handout somewhere on...." (Everett-Turner, p. 14)

Most of the teachers in the project did recognize theory as having some value. Their criticisms had to do with lack of opportunities for application, and with inappropriate content and methods of presentation. In attempting to find solutions to their criticisms, the task of teacher educators becomes that of creating a context for students' learning.

By and large, the researchers seemed to accept the call of the teachers they interviewed for greater integration among the different aspects of the teacher education program, and to recommend some movement towards integration of basic education courses, practicum, and curriculum and instruction courses in particular. One researcher suggested that integration of subject areas should be one model of teaching that student teachers learn to use during their program, and that coordination of courses by the instructors involved might contribute to that end. Another suggested that, in some academic terms, sections of students might stay together for several courses, with instructors planning together to model integration via content and

assignments. Several researchers picked up the point made by Jill, above, and recommended more integration of courses with school-based practice, and more opportunity to follow up on the "real" issues students are meeting in classrooms. The researchers saw this happening through various kinds of arrangements with the school system. Education students might work with children in schools or other settings, or children might be brought to the university to participate in activities. The involvement of students and faculty in such contexts could do much to enhance students' perceptions of their university instructors as capable of working with children.

Researchers also suggested that links with the school system must be established in order to ensure that course content is relevant to the world of teaching. Approaches which are being used in the school systems, such as teacher effectiveness or whole language, could then be introduced and critically evaluated in terms of relevant theory.

One way of bridging the gap between theory and practice is for university instructors to model the kinds of instructional methodology that their students could use in classrooms. This would involve only a judicious use of the lecture model, use of different space arrangements, and the use of examples of theory application. There would be implications in this for the allocation of teaching responsibilities, space, and resources within the faculty.

In the literature, the importance of a liberal arts education for teachers is never questioned, but Tymitz-Wolf (1984) has suggested that there must be greater integration of the liberal arts into teacher education programs. Furthermore, this author has suggested that today's students have a deep concern about the marketability of their skills and tend to value

courses that they see as contributing directly to this marketability. The task of educators will be, therefore,

> to develop new and creative strategies to view the technical aspects of teacher education with other more general experiences so as to facilitate the development of more complete, well-rounded professionals capable of thinking as well as doing. (1984, p. 22)

The Holmes Group (1986) wrote that it is imperative

> that the nature of liberal arts instruction be modified to strengthen the substance and coherence of the disciplinary backgrounds of prospective teachers. (p. 27)

The teachers interviewed in our study, however, clearly indicate that whatever attempts have been made in these directions in their own undergraduate programs are not sufficient to enable most of them to find relevance and meaning in that part of the program.

The literature supports the calls our teachers made for a stronger connection between education courses, particularly the CI courses, and school-based experience. To deal with the theory/practice dilemma, however, it may be important to determine what teachers mean by theory. MacKinnon, whose doctoral research (1987) involved extensive observation and participation with a class of early childhood education students, found that the students tended to define theory as anything which was "not practical" as in "not directly useful." The comments of the teachers in the project seemed to reflect a similar orientation, where theoretical might have been interpreted as "not applied." The task for teacher educators, then, would be to set up structures and techniques which would allow students to experience and use the theory that they are learning.

Hrynyk (1987), in his review of teacher education issues, notes that practicing teachers almost invariably feel that their teacher education programs gave them little that was of use in the classroom. According to Katz

(1987), one of the main difficulties with teacher education is that students have no framework of experience for organizing the content of the training program.

To overcome the theory/practice dilemma, the Holmes Group (1986) suggests that work in university courses "be integrated to form a coherent pattern" and, as well, be closely tied with classroom practice:

> All aspects of professional studies must be integrated into a clinical experience where formal knowledge must be used as a guide to practical action. (p. 51)

Alberta Education, in Theory to Practice (1981), makes several recommendations related to reducing the gap between theory and practice:

> Training components need to be sequenced and integrated so that theoretical notions about education are explicated through demonstrations, opportunities are provided for skill development in simulated settings through practice and feedback, and that opportunity is provided for students to transfer skills to the workplace through coaching by effective practitioners.
>
> Experience in the four substantive areas [the design of schools, the design of curriculum, the design of teaching, and the nature of students] should be accompanied by experience in teaching laboratories, some of which can be on the campus and others in schools, staffed partly by university faculty and partly by practicing teachers. (p. 32)

In a document entitled Preparation of Teachers for the Public Schools of British Columbia (1981), the British Columbia Department of Science and Technology suggests:

> The professional studies portion should be related to what is happening in the schools and should also assist in maintaining faculty member involvement in the schools. (p. 26)

Recommendations

The teachers interviewed in this study suggested that their teacher education programs included much that was good, but that they would have gained more from the different parts of their programs had there been more integration and correlation of the various components. The successful

integration of theory and practice appears to be an important goal. This integration seems to occur best when students are able to apply theoretical concepts in their own work with children or to observe such application by skilled professionals, and when there is also close involvement and modeling of different approaches to teaching by faculty members. To achieve this it is recommended that:

4.1 Teacher educators must attend to ways of creating a context that will give meaning to the practical ideas to which students are exposed in their education program.

4.2 Teacher educators should consider the advantages to be gained from facilitating and exemplifying integration of arts and education components, practicum and other course work (particularly the CIs), and the subject matter and assignments of the CIs. This might involve:

- 4.2.1 coordination of courses by faculty members in order to model integration; some sections of students, for example, might stay together, in some terms, for several courses offered both across and within departments;
- 4.2.2 closer liaison between practicum and on-campus courses, and greater opportunity for discussion on campus of experiences, issues, and concerns arising during the practicum;
- 4.2.3 exploration of ways to increase the appreciation of student teachers for the value and meaning of the liberal arts component of their program.

4.3 Provision needs to be made for students to work extensively with children in appropriate and carefully supervised field settings. These

settings may be within the school system, the community, or the university. Linkages which would provide for high quality field experiences for students and reciprocal arrangements between staff should be established between the university and the school systems.

4.4 Instructors should, wherever possible, model the types of instruction that their students could or should be using with children. Allocation of teaching responsibilities, space, and resources in the faculty would need to be made to accommodate this recommendation, and to ensure that all students are introduced to a good variety of models of teaching.

Some of the classrooms in the study, particularly but not exclusively the kindergartens, included a fairly extensive parental involvement component. Parental expectations and participation were a problem for some teachers. Kare, a kindergarten teacher who had had some unpleasant experiences with parents, commented,

> I can accommodate them [parents] but I don't think you can lose your dignity.... I don't consider it my job to put up with the parents interfering with my program. (Mochoruk, pp. 12-13)

Although Sandra, another kindergarten teacher, saw value in the parental involvement component, she was a little concerned about her relationship with the Local Advisory Committe.

> You have to have one. It's a necessity, and I can see a real need for one. It's ... supposed to help the teacher, and it does in a lot of cases, and so far it has, but I've heard stories that, you know, [you mustn't] let them get away with too much, and so I was maybe a little leary about it and not so supportive. (McNay, p. 37)

Most teachers are most closely involved with parents at report card time. The concerns of many teachers have largely to do with communicating with parents in parent-teacher conferences, and at other times, concerning children's progress in school.

Although parental involvement had been included as a topic in their preservice program, these teachers still experienced problems in working with parents. Kare suggested teaching strategies which she felt might be more effective:

> They try and teach you about parents and children but they don't teach you really much. The books don't have to do with school. They should put you in real situations or act out situations and put you on the spot and make you handle them. You'd remember that much more. (Mochoruk, p. 11)

Perhaps, Kare suggests, more effective methods can be found for teaching students to work with parents. For example, students could participate in activities that would bring them into contact with parents in ways that would help them to understand parents' perspectives on their children's school experiences.

The Alberta Government requires parental involvement at the kindergarten level and strongly encourages it at the primary school level (Alberta Education, 1986). Therefore, elementary school teachers need to develop skills for working effectively with parents.

Recommendation

4.5 Teacher education programs should address ways of helping students to understand teachers' responsibilities to parents, and should help them to develop cooperative relationships with parents. Special attention should be given to teachers' responsibilities concerning reporting to parents about children's work and progress in school, and to the development of effective communications skills in this area.

One of the new teachers, Molly, had made a conscious effort to identify experiences that might be useful to her, in addition to her course work and practice, in order to make her a good teacher. These had included experiences

which exposed her to children from a variety of social and cultural contexts and which seemed to broaden her acceptance of these differences. One of her early childhood courses at the university had put her in contact with an inner-city school, which also influenced her perspective.

> Well it was the special needs one [assignment], where we're out in the schools again, and I do think it's very worthwhile for students to go into inner-city schools, because that's where you see most of it anyway, you know, the real ethnic quality and lower income, and the school really does have to meet with banks and make sure they have a snack for the whole school.... I mean, it becomes a school goal as well. And so I think just ... to have the opportunity to go into an inner-city school and just see that aspect of it. (Blakey, p. 41)

Another teacher, Sarah, seemed to bring a more ethnocentric view to her classroom.

> Sarah's upbringing taught her a certain set of manners, accepted social behaviors, a need for mutual respect, and courtesies. She feels most of these learnings are accepted by most parents, even if they can't seem to succeed in teaching them to their own children, so she must work hard to teach children the right way to get along with each other, and with adults.... Sarah realizes this may put her in the position of saying, "My way is right and theirs is wrong" but is convinced this is an important way for her to "make a difference in these kids' lives." (Chamberlin, p. 60)

The researchers felt it was valuable for beginning teachers to bring to their work a broad range of experience with children from different social and cultural backgrounds. The preservice curriculum could provide opportunities for students to be exposed to various life-styles and cultural expectations. They could experience life in an inner city school, work with multiethnic groups, or work with special needs children and their families.

The following quote from Alberta Education's Theory to Practice (1981) underlines the importance of knowing about students as a component of the teacher education program:

> The substance of teacher education programs should be based on four essential areas: the design of schools, the design of curriculum, the design of teaching, and the nature of students [emphasis added]. (pp. 31-32)

Recommendation

If cultural and social diversity are characteristic of the children in elementary classrooms, and if children with various types of disabilities are present in most classrooms, teacher education programs must address the implications.

4.6 The teacher education program should include opportunities for students to have experiences with children from a variety of cultural and social backgrounds. As well, attention must be given to ways of teaching and working with a wide variety of children in classrooms.

Whether it was called management, control, or discipline, this topic was discussed in some detail by all the teachers in this study. Some teachers, such as Molly and Sandra, both kindergarten teachers, had no difficulty with discipline. Ideas they had encountered in their university programs were reinforced and supported by the explicit philosophies and policies of the schools in which they found themselves, and they coped readily with the minor problems that arose in their classrooms.

Other teachers found discipline an almost overwhelming problem. Kent, for example, said,

> I hate the discipline.... It just seems like it's all you're doing.... [It] can creep up and be the foremost [concern] in any period.... The discipline and the behavior ... that's what I hate the most. (Massey, p. 26)

Kent, and other teachers, found that explicit instruction concerning classroom management was helpful, and several teachers praised highly the Teacher Effectiveness Program they had had the opportunity to attend as part of their school district's inservice program.

The researchers in this study support the call of the teachers for greater and more explicit attention to the issues of classroom management.

Kysela (1986), for example, recognizes "the need for a more elaborate model and methodology for teachers to develop regarding students' self-control and classroom behaviors," and suggests that "the ... one-sided view of classroom control through the use of firm disciplinary measures which has dominated our conception of classroom behavior matters for so long will have to be drastically changed" (p. 23).

Recommendation

4.7 Teacher education programs must address more fully, directly, and explicitly the topic of classroom management, and provide teachers with the means for acquiring skills in this area. This may mean introducing student teachers and practicing teachers to a variety of models or sets of techniques for classroom management. This must be coupled, however, with critical examination and study of a variety of approaches to classroom organization and classroom relationships.

Many teachers experienced a conflict between the nature of the curriculum they followed and of the curriculum materials they used in their classrooms, and the nature and needs of the children they were teaching. For example, Sharla, a grade four teacher, explained why she often modified the curriculum as outlined in official documents:

> I really feel that if you are going to get these kids to progress at all you have got to keep them interested, and a lot of what is in the curriculum is not interesting--not relevant to their lives at all. Unless you are willing to make changes, you are not going to get very far with the kids. (Kysela, p. 18)

However, Kent, a grade five teacher, found himself "faced with the unrelenting task of presenting programs for children which for the most part were defined outside the doors of his classroom" (Massey, p. 28). He did not

feel free, as Sharla did, to forego those aspects of the curriculum which he or his students did not value.

> I use strictly all the curriculum books.... I use everything, and I kind of go right in order until I know it. (Massey, p. 28)
>
> I didn't really choose it. It was in place when I came in. (Massey, p. 28)

The researchers in this study suggested that greater attention needs to be paid to the relationship between curriculum content and children's needs, and to teachers' reponsibilities in this area. Kysela suggests (p. 23) that "children's needs for survival skills for community living will often run contrary to [curriculum] content." And Massey asked, "Just how free are teachers to abandon the mandated programs? What do they risk in such action? Is it even possible or desirable for a teacher to scrap or modify what is officially prescribed?" (p. 32). Alberta Education (1987) emphasizes the design of curriculum as one of four "essential areas" which should form the substance of a teacher education program. Certainly these issues need somehow to be addressed in teacher education programs, and beginning teachers need help to understand their roles and to feel more confident of their responsibilities for selecting and shaping curriculum.

Recommendation

4.8 Teacher education programs must more explicitly address teachers' responsibilities as designers and shapers of the classroom curriculum; and, considering the nature of the children in their classrooms and their own needs as teachers, to help them make appropriate choices more readily concerning the curriculum in their own classrooms.

5. Continuing Professional Development

A number of teachers in this study feel there is a need for professionals to hold a much broader view of inservice education than is usually the case. The need for a wider view was expressed by one of the researchers when she stated:

> Shirley was right when she said inservice involves more than just teachers' convention but also interaction with "teachers in the school ... peers, and administration [and] board level inservice." She also included experience under inservice. Perhaps, then, inservice agencies should pay more attention to those other aspects of inservice and facilitate teacher development using other avenues. There has to be more school-based inservice which encourages collegial communication and reflection on experience. (Halabisky, p. 33)

This wider view appears to point to the need for different kinds of support for teachers as they address a range of problems. Support for these beginning teachers was needed at two points at least. First, support as they moved from preservice student to classroom teacher and, second, ongoing assistance as they worked their way through the first year of teaching. One shot "fix it" sessions, or even longer programs which centered on technical problems, were not enough to meet these needs.

Everett-Turner commented on the transition from preservice student to classroom teacher:

> While I am sure faculty within each subject area would hope that each beginning teacher [would] put into practice the new and exciting ideas they've gained through classes, this is not a reasonable expectation. As a faculty member concerned with the overall education of children, I believe we must help graduands approach their first year realistically and accept that there is only so much time and energy one person can devote to their work. (p. 46).

Being responsible for your own classroom is different from student teaching and different from being an intern. The above and similar comments point to the need for systematic planning to help beginning teachers with this phase of their professional growth.

The need for assistance which would address the particular concerns of beginning teachers in their first years was outlined by the teacher in Chamberlin's study:

> Sarah spent 2-4 hours per week attending inservices in search of practical ideas. She found "Make and Take" sessions helpful, and tried to go to any sessions offered at her grade level.
>
> Sarah spoke at length of her anxiety over not knowing whether she was doing "the right thing." She sometimes wished she'd chosen banking rather than teaching, often lay in bed at night thinking about how she should have handled some child's problem, found it took weeks to unwind when summer vacation came, and said, "You never feel secure about what you are doing." Sarah was diligent about her teaching, and it had a powerful emotional effect on her even after she got home, when her husband would sometimes take three hours to listen to her concerns. (Chamberlin, p. 76)

Sarah, along with other teachers in the study, indicated the need for specific practical ideas which could be applied to the classroom and, in particular, some continuing support system which would provide them with some assurance that they were doing things well.

Researchers agreed with the comments of the teachers they observed. They felt that inservice opportunities were an important factor in decision making. They indicated that beginning teachers find inservice opportunities professionally invigorating, especially when they are relevant to their teaching situation, such as class management sessions.

Researchers identified support for beginning teachers as a particular area where inservice was needed. It was felt that there was a "desperate" need for an on-going support system which is both practical and caring. Such a system, it was suggested, would continue until the new teachers had developed their own network on staff.

Related to this was a concern with the isolation many beginning teachers felt. The teachers indicated that this feeling of isolation could be broken down if a social element that provided opportunities for beginning

teachers to interact with staff were part of inservice programs. One researcher indicated that beginning teachers seem to need someone who will show interest, discuss problems, and generally encourage perseverance despite initial failure.

Teachers in this study indicated strong support for the inservice programs in which they were involved. There are, however, several recommendations from the literature which have a bearing on the continuing success of these programs. In particular, the view of inservice education as an isolated program seems to be worthy of examination. Hall and Hord (1984) suggest:

> The professional growth of teachers must be viewed as a continuum from preservice education to beginning teaching through inservice education. Faculty and school district planners should avoid treating these as distinct phases in their planning. (p. 158)

The specific need identified by teachers and the recommendation made by researchers that the beginning phase of teaching requires special support and programming is also supported by Hall and Hord.

Recommendations

5.1 Principals should provide, either personally, or through some other member of the school staff, an opportunity for continuous support for beginning teachers until these teachers are able to develop a support network of their own.

5.2 School staffs should be responsible for creating a climate where new teachers find it easy to link up with experienced teachers for advice and professional conversations.

5.3 In evaluating beginning teachers, principals and supervisors should recognize that suggestions for improvement must be balanced with the

teachers' need for support and continual reassurance that they are performing well.

5.4 Future institutional planning of preservice and inservice programs should be done cooperatively by teacher education and school district staff.

Needed Research

This study raises a number of questions which require further study. It also suggested the methodology which might be followed in pursuing particular issues.

1. Longitudinal studies on the evolution of teacher perspective from first year university on into early years of teaching are indicated. The following questions might be asked. What factors have an impact on perspective? How do faculties of education, schools where practicum experiences occur, and schools where graduates first teach affect perspective?

2. Longitudinal studies of experienced teachers that answer the following questions are indicated. How stable is perspective among teachers with five, 10, 20, or 30 years experience? What effect do courses, inservice, colleagues, curriculum changes, new assignments, or other events have on experienced teachers' perspectives? Which teachers are reactive and which proactive, and why? What school system programs have an impact on experienced teachers' perspectives?

3. Principals played major roles in some beginning teachers' careers, providing assistance through inservice, or emotional support during stressful periods. Further research might reveal more about the ways principals affect

beginning teachers, and how they might become still more supportive of beginning teachers.

4. An evaluation is needed on the multi-case study methodology used in this project. Thousands of pages of interview transcripts and observation notes were recorded, synthesized into case study reports, and finally analyzed for significant cross-case themes. Was this a powerful method for gaining insights? Did problems result from sharing individual insights, and from trying to find pooled wisdom? Were roles of graduate students and professors productive? The tapes of meetings, the minutes, other documents, and further interviews are needed to evaluate the methodology used.

5. The concept of perspective needs to be elaborated and refined for further research use. The concept tool helped generate probing discussion during interviews but seemed less helpful during interpretation. Could hermeneutic or phenomenological exploration of this concept increase understanding and increase its power?

6. Teachers felt stress resulting from not knowing what to do, and sought inservice help with practical daily teaching problems. They felt their practica had helped them learn some practical ideas, but found less help from CI and other education courses. Would school-based courses jointly taught by professors and experienced teachers help first year teachers feel more confident about what to do? Would combining school-based education course with a two-month internship at the end of the fourth year improve confidence? Changes in teacher education seem needed. These changes should be part of a research plan to examine short-term and long-term effects.

7. Teachers' practices and beliefs related to socialization of children, classroom management, structure, rules, routines, and manners often seemed rooted in their own upbringing and early schooling more than in concepts of growth, learning, or goals of schooling. Controlling children's behavior and the hidden curriculum that this entails need to be researched in terms of their roots, and the implications for admission to teacher education programs need to be explored. Longitudinal studies, beginning with tne beliefs of students in the first year of teacher education programs and extending into their early years of teaching, need to be undertaken to better understand the evolution of teachers' hidden curricula.

8. A number of teachers mentioned that large lecture courses had had little impact, and that courses where there had been more personal contact with the instructor had been valuable. As we begin exploring quotas and resultant smaller classes, we should be planning research to examine the effects of different sizes of university classes, and the methods of teaching in each.

9. Several teachers had difficulty in working with children who had different values, manners, and social behaviors than the teacher's upbringing had taught was acceptable. Children in inner-city schools, or children from minority groups, were problems for these teachers. Research seems needed on ways universities and school systems can collaborate on preservice and inservice experiences aimed at helping teachers understand and build on cultural differences.

10. Many teachers spoke of their strong commitment to child-centered teaching, the need to recognize and provide for individual differences, and

the importance of giving children some control over their lives at school. Consequently, interest in using learning centers and other individualized, student-directed learning methods was often expressed. However, concern for teacher control and discipline seemed to preclude or limit use of those methods. Research seems needed on the factors constraining teachers' use of more open classroom organization. How much autonomy do teachers perceive themselves to have? How much freedom do they really want to open up in their classrooms? Why do some teachers feel confident in trying out open approaches while others feel constrained?

11. It was recommended that entrance requirements to the Faculty of Education include "successful experiences with children." Should this be implemented, research should be undertaken to determine its effects. Who decides not to pursue a teaching career? How do education professors build on such experiences in courses like child development, learning, and methodologies?

12. Several case studies pointed out the ways teachers were socialized to accept a set of norms and practices, frequently by cooperating teachers or by colleagues in their schools, but sometimes by professors (notably in early childhood education).

Research is needed on ways to help students be more critically analytical of the socialization processes they experience.

VI. GLOSSARY

beliefs - convictions, ideas accepted as truths

CI - Curriculum and Instruction, or teaching methodology courses

cloze - cloze techniques are used in language instruction by omitting letters or words for students to guess: Good mornin ___, Boy ___ and _____. The techniques help students use context and letter sounds in reading.

contradiction - a logical incompatibility; when a teacher appears to hold two conflicting views.

dilemma - a choice between equal alternatives, as when a teacher is convinced play is the best way for kindergarteners to learn, but parents are pressing for formal language instruction.

Donald Graves - author of texts on whole language teaching, and a professor at the University of New Hampshire and author of Writing: Teachers and Children at Work. His emphasis on the process of writing, particularly in the primary grades, has spawned renewed interest in writing in the English-speaking world. His approach is often referred to as the "Writer's Workshop Method."

images - a metaphor; Clandinin (1985) uses "classroom as home" as an image to capture many aspects of a teacher's approach to teaching.

LAC - Local Advisory Committee, a parents' group who advise a kindergarten teacher.

perspective - Werner (1977) uses this term to indicate "our natural attitude": how we order, interpret and act within a life world which is taken for granted by us; an active ordering of perceived reality on the basis of which we structure our experiences, select our projects, and construct our multiple realities.

rationale - the underlying reasons for what we do, say, or think.

SES - Socio-economic status, a measure of social status measured by level of education, occupation, membership in social groups, wealth, residence, etc.

TET - Teacher effectiveness training, a program to teach teachers how to plan and manage their classrooms.

teaching style - an individual teacher's unique way of teaching, as socratic, didactic, lecture, etc.

themes - broad topics used to organize instruction in one or several curricular areas, as Autumn, The Farm, Seeds, Power, etc.

VII. REFERENCES

Agar, M. H. (1980). The professional stranger: An informal introduction to ethnography. Toronto, ON: Academic Press.

Alberta Education. (1981). Theory to practice. Report of the Committee to Evaluate the Extended Practicum at Alberta Universities. Edmonton, AB:Government of Alberta.

Alberta Education. (1984). Early childhood services philosophy, goals and program dimensions. Edmonton, AB: Government of Alberta.

Alberta Education. (1984). The education of teachers in Alberta: A model for the future. Edmonton, AB: Government of Alberta.

Alberta Education. (1986). Bridges to learning: A guide to parent involvement. Edmonton, AB: Government of Alberta.

Becker, H., Geer, B., Hughes, E., & Strauss, A. (1961). Boys in white. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Bernhaum, G. (1977). Knowledge and ideology in the sociology of education. London: Macmillan.

Boag, N., & Massey, D. (1981). Teacher perspectives on program change. Theory and Research in Social Education, 9(3), 37-59.

British Columbia Department of Science and Technology. (1981). Preparation of teachers for the public schools of British Columbia. Report of the Joint Board of Teacher Education. Victoria, BC: Author.

Burden, P. R. (1979). Teachers' perceptions of the characteristics and influences on their personal and professional development. Dissertation Abstracts International, 40, 5404A. (University Microfilms No. 8--08, 77).

Carnegie Corporation. (1986). A nation prepared: Teachers for the 21st century. Report of the Task Force on Teaching as a Pro-fession. New York: Author.

Clandinin, D. J. (1985). Personal practical knowledge: A study of teachers' classroom images. Curriculum Inquiry, 15(4), 363-385.

Craig, T. (1984). Towards an understanding of the life-world of the first-year drama teacher. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Alberta.

Craig, T. (1985). Understanding the life-world of the first year drama teacher. Paper presented at the Understanding Curriculum as Lived Invitational CACS Symposium (Sponsored by the Canadian Association for Curriculum Studies).

Cruikshank, D. R. (1985). Models for the preparation of America's teachers. Bloomington, IL: Phi Delta Kappan Foundation.

Cuban, L. (1984). How teachers taught: Constancy and changing American classrooms 1890-1980. New York: Longman.

Doyle, W. (1980). Classroom management. West Lafayette, IN: Kappa Delta Phi.

Elbaz, F. (1983). Teacher thinking: A study of practical knowledge. New York: Nichols.

Everett-Turner, L. (1984). The lived world of three beginning teachers. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta.

Everett-Turner, L. (1985). Towards understanding the lived world of three beginning teachers of young children. The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, XXXI, 306-321.

Feiman-Nemser, S., & Floden, R. E. (1986). The cultures of teaching. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of research on teaching (3rd ed.) (pp. 505-527). New York: Macmillan.

Flanders, T. (1980). The professional development of teachers. Vancouver, BC: British Columbia Teacher Federation.

Fullan, M. (1982). The meaning of educational change. Toronto, ON:OISE Press.

Fullan, M., Wideen, M., & Eastabrook, G. (1983). A study of teacher training institutions in anglophone Canada, vol. I: Current perspectives on teacher training in Canada: An overview of faculty and student perceptions. Ottawa, ON: Social Science and Humanities Research Council.

Fullan, M. (1985). Integrating theory and practice. In D. Hopkins & K. Reid, (Eds.), Rethinking teacher education. London: Croom Helm.

Fuller, F., & Bown, O. (1975). Becoming a teacher. In K. Ryan (Ed.), Teacher education: the 74th yearbook of the NSSE. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Glaser, B. & Strauss, A. (1967). The discovery of grounded theory. Chicago: Aldine.

Glazer, M. (1972). The research adventure: Promise and problems of fieldwork. New York: Random House.

Guba, E. G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries. ERIC/ECTJ Annual review paper. Reprinted in Educational Communications and Technological Journal, 29(2), 75-91.

Hall, G. E., & Hord, S. M. (1984). Water around our ankles: Man the life rafts. Action in Teacher Education, 6(1-2), 15-22.

Hamilton, S. F., (1983). The social side of schooling: Ecological studies of classrooms and schools. Elementary School Journal, 83(4), 313-334.

Hinley, R., & Ponder, G. (1979). Theory, practice, and classroom research. Theory into Practice, 18, 135-137.

Holmes Group, Inc. (The). (1986). Tomorrow's teachers. East Lansing, MI: Author.

Hoy, W. K. (1969). Pupil control ideology and organizational socialization: A further examination of the influence of experience on the beginning teacher. School Review, 77, 257-265.

Hoy, W., & Rees, R. (1977). The bureaucratic socialization of student teachers. Journal of Teacher Education, 28(1), 23-26.

Hrynyk, N. (1987). Trends in teacher education: A review of the literature. Edmonton: University of Alberta, Faculty of Education.

Iannaccone, L. (1963). Student teaching: A transitional stage in the making of a teacher. Theory into Practice, 11, 73-80.

Janesick, V. (1978). An ethnographic study of a teacher's classroom perspective: Implications for curriculum. East Lansing, MI: Institute for Research on Teaching, Michigan State University.

Johnston, J. M., & Ryan, K. (1983). Research on the beginning teacher: Implications for teacher education. In K. R. Howey & W. E. Gardner, (Eds.), The education of teachers: A look ahead. New York: Longman.

Joyce, B., & Clift, R. (1984). The phoenix agenda: Essential reform in teacher education. Educational Researcher, 13(4), 5-18.

Koehler, V. (1979). Methodology for research on teacher training. Austin, TX: Research and Development Center for Teacher Education.

Kvale, S. (1984). The qualitative research interview: a phenomeno logical and a hermeneutical mode of understanding. Journal of Phenomenological Psychology, 14(2), 171-196.

Lacey, G. (1977). The socialization of teachers. London: Methuen.

Lanier, J. E., & Little, J. W. (1986). Research on teacher education. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of research on teaching. (3rd ed.) (pp. 527-568). New York: Macmillan.

Lortie, D. (1975). School teacher. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

MacKinnon, J. D. (1987). Early childhood teacher education: Contextualizing and interpreting the student experience. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta.

McIntosh, R. G. (1987). Dynamics of diversity: The faculty of education in context. Edmonton: University of Alberta, Faculty of Education.

National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education. (1985). A call for change in teacher education. Washington, DC: Author.

Newberry, J. M. (1979). The beginning teacher's search for assistance from colleagues. Canadian Journal of Education, 4(1), 17-27.

Pennsylvania State University, College of Education. (1985). Revised executive summary of the strategic plan. University Park, PA: Author.

Saskatchewan Department of Education. Program policy proposals--Report of the Core Curriculum Advisory Committee. Regina, SK: Department of Education.

Shulman, L. S. (1981). Recent developments in the study of teaching. In B. R. Tabachnick (Ed.), Studying teaching and learning (pp. 87-100). New York: Praeger.

Shulman, L. S. (1986). Paradigms and research programs in the study of teaching: A contemporary perspective. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of research on teaching (3rd ed.) (pp. 3-36). New York: Macmillan.

Smith, L., & Geoffrey, W. (1968). The complexities of an urban classroom. New York: Holt.

Spindler, G. (Ed.). (1982). Doing the ethnography of schooling. Toronto, ON: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Spradley, J. P. (1979). The ethnographic interview. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Stake, R. E., & Easly, J. (1978). Case studies in science education. Volume II. Design overview and general findings. Urbana, Champaign, IL: University of Illinois, Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation.

Tabachnik, B. R. (1980). Intern-teacher roles: illusion, disillusion, and reality. Journal of Education, 162(1), 122-137.

Tabachnick, B. R. (1981). Teacher education as a set of dynamic social events. In B. R. Tabachnick (Ed.), Studying teaching and learning (pp. 76-86). New York: Praeger.

Tabachnick, B., Popkewitz, T., & Zeichner, K. (1979/1980). Teacher education and professional perspectives of student teachers. Interchange, 10(4), 12-29.

Tabachnick, B. R., & Zeichner, K. (1985). Individual and contextual influences on the relationships between teacher beliefs and classroom behaviors: Case studies of two beginning teachers in the United States. Paper presented at ISATT 1985 Conference, Tilburg University, The Netherlands.

Tafel, L. S. (1984). A future paradigm for teacher education. Action in Teacher Education, 6(1-2), 1-6.

Taylor, W. (1981). Appendix to Theory to practice: Report of the committee to evaluate the extended practicum at Alberta Univeraities. Edmonton, AB: Government of Alberta.

Tymitz-Wolf, B. L. (1984). The new vocationalism and teacher education. Journal of Teacher Education, 35(1), 21-25.

Watts, D. (1984). Teacher educators should be certified. Journal of Teacher Education, 35,(1), 30-33.

Werner, W. (1977). A study of perspective in social studies. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta.

Werner, W., & Rothe, P. (1979). Curriculum praxis: Doing school ethnography. Monograph Series: Paper No. 2. Edmonton, AB: Department of Secondary Education, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta.

Wilson, S. (1977). The use of ethnographic techniques in educational research. Review of Education Research, 47, 245-265.

Wolcott, H. (1975). Criteria for an ethnographic approach to research in schools. Human Organization, 34(2), 111-127.

Wolcott, H. (1973). The man in the principal's office. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Wragg, E.C. (1982). A review of teacher education. Windsor, UK.: NFER-Nelson.

Zeichner, K. M. (1983). Individual and institutional factors related to the socialization of teaching. In G. A. Griffin, & H. Hukill (Eds.), First years of teaching: What are the pertinent issues? Proceedings of a national working conference (pp. 1-59). Austin, TX: Texas University Research and Development Center for Teacher Education.

Zeichner, K. M., & Tabachnick, B. R. (1981). Are the effects of university teacher education washed out by school experience? Journal of Teacher Education, 32(3), 7-11.

Zeichner, K. M., & Tabachnick, B. R. (1985). The development of teacher perspectives: Social strategies and institutional control in the socialization of beginning teachers. Journal of Education for Teaching, 11(1), 1-25.

Zumwalt, K. K. (1982). Research on teaching: Policy implications for teacher education. In A. Leiberman & M. W. McLaughlin (Eds.), Policy making in education. Eighty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: NationalSociety for the Study of Education.

A NOTE REGARDING THE CASE-STUDIES

Because the 14 appendices are so extensive they have not been included in this document. The case studies have been referenced with individual pagination in the body of the report. They are available by contacting Dr. Janice Blakey at Elementary Education, 537 Education S., University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, T6G 2G5.

Case Study 1: *Blakey*	Stop and Smell the Flowers: A Teacher Begins	1-55
Case Study 2: *Chamberlin*	Sources of a Beginning Teacher's Perspective	1-69
Case Study 3: *Everett-Turner*	The Evolution of a Teacher: "Mark Seale"	1-42
Case Study 4: *Labisky*	Shirley's Perspective	1-31
Case Study 5: *Kysela*	Perspectives for Decision-Making: The Case of Sharla	1-39
Case Study 6: *Maaskant*	The First Year - A Time of Learning	1-48
Case Study 7: *Massey*	How He Would Teach: Kent Reed	1-35
Case Study 8: *Massing*	Tracey Simpson: Looking to the Future	1-47
Case Study 9: *McNay*	The Rookie: A Case Study of Sandra, A First-Year Kindergarten Teacher	1-53
Case Study 10: *Mochoruk*	A Beginning Teacher's Quest for Effective Teaching	1-33
Case Study 11: *Sande*	Sources of a Beginning Teacher's Perspective	1-53
Case Study 12: *Scott*	Choices: A Case Study of a Beginning Teacher	1-56
Case Study 13: *Stephanson*	The First Year Teaching Experience: Perspectives of One Teacher	1-62
Case Study 14: *Tucker*	An Intern Teacher's Perspectives on Teaching	1-38

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Purpose

Teachers act within their classrooms in ways deeply affected by the perspectives they have built up over their lifetimes. An important aspect of this study was to identify factors from past and present experiences, including preservice and inservice education, in shaping the developing perspectives of teachers beginning their careers. Werner (1977) suggested that perspective is a broad world view which people develop from reflection on their own experience in their own culture. He defined perspective as "a subject-object relationship in which the subject selectively apprehends an object from the standpoint of his unique context, purposes and ongoing history" (p. iv).

The purpose of this naturalistic study was to examine how teachers define and interpret their teaching world, make decisions, and construct their actions. These goals directed the study:

1. To identify kinds of perspectives held and teacher decisions made throughout the year by recent graduates of the elementary teacher education program of the University of Alberta.

2. To identify factors affecting teacher perspectives and decision making.

3. To gain insights into redesigning or refining the elementary teacher education program.

4. To provide understanding in redesigning inservice programs.

This study was developed by a team of professors in the Department of Elementary Education after a pilot study was conducted in the spring of

1986. It was initiated in August of 1986 when a team of 14 researchers (8 professors and 6 graduate students) were paired with teachers. The teacher informants were chosen to represent the different programs offered in the Department of Elementary Education as well as various teaching levels and a range of teaching experience.

Methodology

Guba's (1981) concept of naturalistic research guided the methodology. Each researcher visited a teacher's classroom weekly over a 15 week period from September through December. Through these weekly observations and interviews the researchers became aware of the meaning a teacher gave to classroom events which communicated aspects of the teachers' perspectives. The purpose of the early interviews was to collect teacher biographical material and information on teacher planning for the coming year as well as to introduce the researchers and familiarize the teacher with the purpose of the study. Succeeding interviews involved dialogue arising from a number of sources; the goals as set out in our proposal, aspects of perspective, field notes of observations, documents, issues brought up by the teacher, pertinent themes that evolved spontaneously during the interview, and issues from previous interviews.

Analysis involved a total review of all the data sources: field notes, the researcher's journal, transcripts of taped interviews, and documents. If statements, propositions, or issues centered about one recurring focus, that focus became the theme. As these themes were identified, they were noted along with the evidence for their derivation. Themes were labelled and these labels became the headings used to classify further evidence.

Regular project meetings before Christmas involved discussions about methods of data collection, interviews, and emerging themes. The meetings after Christmas involved discussions about secondary data analysis and teacher validation of researcher interpretations.

At the conclusion of data collection, each researcher wrote a case study describing the aspects of the teacher's perspective. Final interviews were conducted after initial drafts of these case studies had been written. These final interviews were held in order that the researcher's interpretations could be checked by the teacher. After the case studies were complete, discussions at project meetings and sub-committee meetings about format and content sections led to the summary report. The report is divided into a synthesis of teachers' perspectives, including the beliefs and decisions of the teachers and the contradictions and dilemmas they face; a section examining influences on teacher perspectives; and, an examination of effects of teaching experience on teachers. The report concludes with a set of recommendations.

Influences

This section identifies and describes factors which influenced the participants in the study to become teachers and to teach as they did. The information divides naturally into three main time periods: pre-university, university and post-university. Within these time frames various influences were highlighted.

During the pre-university period, immediate family members and upbringing had a significant influence on both the decision to become a teacher and the values brought to the teaching situation. Several subjects felt they were inherently natural teachers. What might be considered "non-

formal education" included work experience and social relationships, both of which were mentioned as important influences. Most teachers expressed satisfaction with their own school background and recalled teachers who had made a significant impact upon their attitude toward education and their decision to seek teaching as a career.

The university period was characterized by the program of studies which eventually led to the individual securing teacher certification. Of the university program, aspects which were most valued were the practicum components. Those courses which were seen as practical in application were the next most satisfying. Although most teachers expressed particular satisfaction with some component, course, or professor, a great deal of criticism was aimed at those parts of the teacher preparation program which lacked relevance for classroom teaching. Some factors which were identified as detractors to the program included large class sizes, the inability to register in the minor field of choice, and a general frustration with university bureaucracy.

The post-university period involved the work experiences from university teacher certification to the current teaching position. The teachers expressed strong and varied opinions regarding the influence of their teaching assignments and other factors such as the community, principals, colleagues, curriculum, inservices, and spouses. The school principal and teaching peers were seen as most influential. Inservice was noted as very significant to the beginning teacher; Teacher Effectiveness workshops were especially identified for their contributions. The post-university period, as reported by the teachers, seemed to be more significant than the pre-university and university periods in determining their perspectives toward teaching.

Perspectives: Being a Teacher

The fundamental analysis of teachers' activities in the classroom involved an examination of the perspectives which seemed to affect their decision making and judgements. Their perspectives have been synthesized into a series of beliefs, actively structured, which seemed to affect the teachers' decisions. These beliefs emerged through two procedures: a thematic analysis of the teachers' actions and decisions and discussions regarding these actions and decisions.

Beliefs and Decisions

Beliefs about Self as Teacher

There were differences and similarities among the 14 teachers in the perspectives which seemed to be related to their views of themselves as teachers. These views, along with each teaching situation, affected their decisions in the classroom and their behavior as teachers.

For many of these teachers, classroom practices were more closely connected to perceptions of themselves than to specific, acquired knowledge. When asked why they did things in a certain way, many teachers replied, "That's just me" or "That's the way I am." These images of self were interwoven with the teachers' views of their programs, such that criticism of their classroom practices was often interpreted personally. The views they had of themselves as teachers were influenced also by beliefs about their school or teaching situation.

Beliefs about the Teaching Situation

The socialization of teachers into their schools was influenced by the nature of their relationships with colleagues, their teaching situation, and the location of their school. Most of the teachers perceived their school

as a warm, supportive environment which provided direction for their professional growth; this effect seemed true regardless of the location of schools in the socio-economic strata. In certain situations, however, the "support" and "direction" may have been too strong as some teachers felt they had to teach in a specific way because of the "school image."

The teaching situation and patterns of socialization, while important for all teachers in this study, were most pervasive for the interns and the teachers working in two schools. The kindergarten teachers who were in two schools found that the policies and expectations differed in each setting. Adjusting to these differences took a great deal of emotional and mental energy. The interns felt "cheated" when they had to work with more than one class and seemed to have a stronger attachment to one teacher than to the others. In this sense, their experience of "having to be in so many places" was similar to that of the kindergarten teachers who were teaching in two schools.

Beliefs and Decisions about Society

Although explicit reference to the teachers' perspectives on society is not made in all 14 case studies, it is apparent from reading these case studies that teachers based their decisions and actions on beliefs which embodied their individual perspectives of society. A recurring theme was the belief that the teachers' responsibilities included preparing students to live in our society. A view held by several teachers was that the prescribed curriculum does not provide an opportunity to help students cope with daily living. Occasionally this resulted in the curriculum taking second place to teaching social norms occasionally.

Beliefs and Decisions about Parents

Beliefs about parents influenced teachers' decisions concerning their students, the curriculum, and the methods employed in teaching. Teachers' beliefs about parents also influenced their decisions about and interactions with parents. The teachers' statements about parents and the home environment ranged from positive to negative; the case studies suggested that socio-economic status and level of parental involvement in school might have a bearing on the teachers' views.

The teachers' positive attitudes and beliefs about parents as well as the importance of the relationships among home, school, and teacher were apparent in the 14 case studies. The teachers spoke of the positive influence parents can have on their children, both through encouraging students and teachers, and through personal involvement in the school. The teachers shared the view that parental involvement in the school can be beneficial to the students, teachers, and parents. The nature of this involvement varied considerably. While parental involvement was seen as helpful in the classroom, teachers indicated that they seek to define the limits of parental participation. Parents seeking to become involved were provided several opportunities to do so, but some parents were reported to have the tendency to overstep the limits that teachers felt were acceptable.

Teachers felt the home environment can also exert considerable negative influence over the students' attitudes and demeanor. In some instances, the educational background and attitudes of parents towards the school were seen to have a detrimental influence, even when parents were merely indifferent to school and/or education. In such cases, teachers indicated that part of their responsibilities included creating student awareness that the world outside

the home was not necessarily the same as at home.

Beliefs and Decisions about Children

Beliefs about children played an important part in the perspectives of the 14 teachers in this study. These beliefs, in turn, translated into classroom decisions. Although all of the teachers believed in some aspects of the following statement, not every one would have subscribed to all parts of it. However, the research team agreed that the following general statement best reflects the beliefs about children held by most of the teachers in the study.

CHILDREN ARE UNIQUE INDIVIDUALS WHO SEEK TO MAKE MEANING OUT OF INFORMAL LEARNING EXPERIENCES, SUCH AS PLAY. THEY NEED LOVE, RESPECT, NURTURE, AND GUIDANCE IN ORDER TO DEVELOP TO THEIR FULL POTENTIAL WITHIN SOCIETY.

This statement incorporates four major beliefs, the first two being oriented to the nature of children and the second two focusing on the needs of children:

1. Children are unique individuals deserving love and respect as young persons.

2. Children learn best when activities are meaningful and enjoyable.

3. Children need to develop self-esteem.

4. Children require socialization if they are to cope with school and society.

The case studies indicated that teachers often struggled with ways to accommodate their beliefs about children with their beliefs about the educator's role in socialization. As well, the teachers seemed conscious

of the various beliefs they held about children; they seemed to sense the need to accommodate one belief with another in order to develop the whole child.

Beliefs and Decisions about How to Teach

Several themes were identified within the context of the "how to teach" belief. Often, the themes seemed to represent opposite ends of a continuum or two facets of a dilemma. Moving from teacher-directed to student-directed learning and instructional activities played a prominent role in the teachers' beliefs and decisions. As well, student involvement in the decision making process was viewed as an essential component of the "how to teach" process. In addition, individualizing the student's program was seen as an effective way to accomplish a more sensitive teaching approach.

Several methods quite specific to the school learning situations were also valued by the teachers. These specific methods included student grouping, using trial and error teaching approaches, the use of signals and signs, and the use of positive reinforcement. Finally, basic values such as the need for student enjoyment and a basic concern and caring for the students seemed to lie at the heart of the instructional process for these teachers.

However, the teachers did not perceive that each of these factors was well controlled and successfully implemented within an effective learning environment. They were each struggling with various facets of this "how to teach" process; they each had a different set of problems associated with how to teach their students. Some overcame these problems successfully, while others continued to have difficulties.

Beliefs and Decisions about What to Teach

The "what to teach" was a significant concern to all the teachers in this study. The "what" implies curriculum. The study revealed the presence of both the given, written curriculum which the teachers felt they must follow, and a hidden curriculum.

The Written Curriculum. All the teachers felt that the children were taught subjects. Many teachers were concerned about covering all the material so that students would be ready for the next grade. Even though they had no written curriculum guide, the kindergarten teachers seemed to feel this way also. In addition, several of the teachers' decisions on what to teach were influenced by the parents.

The Hidden Curriculum. Many teachers felt it was necessary to follow the prescribed curriculum guides but at the same time deal with hidden curriculum issues. All the teachers felt that it was their responsibility to socialize students. Teachers wanted their students to develop the ability to get along well with others, to have good manners, to be responsible for their own learning and behavior, and to develop into good citizens.

Contradictions and Dilemmas

Most researchers reported contradictions between teacher beliefs and classroom practices. Some teachers were aware of these contradictions, others were unaware or did not acknowledge them. Three contradictions were identified which caused dilemmas for the teachers. These dilemmas were felt to have implications for teacher preparation and inservice education. Firstly, the teachers believed children to be unique, active learners who deserve opportunities to act responsibly and independently, yet the teachers often restricted student movements, limited decisions, and controlled access to information. Secondly, teachers' beliefs about the need to teach individual

children were often contradicted by their application of curricular guidelines to large groups of students. Whether to follow the written curriculum, develop one which seemed more appropriate for the students, or to cater to the expectations of other groups such as parents, principals, or colleagues, was a dilemma for many teachers in this study. Thirdly, several researchers identified a contradiction between the teachers' belief that they should develop children's self-esteem and the school requirement to evaluate students and make periodic reports to parents.

Effects: Responding to Being a Teacher

The 14 case studies were examined for evidence of the effects teaching had on these recent graduates. A large number of statements concerning negative emotional effects and a somewhat smaller number of statements reporting positive emotional effects were identified and categorized. The negative effects appeared to result from several causes: a) lack of confidence ("I feel really inadequate teaching math"); b) uncertainty ("I really don't know what to expect.... There're no clear guidelines"); c) pressure ("Most of that pressure came from parents. They're going to be evaluating me." "...if I want a job next year..."); d) dislocation ("She has to deal with the expectations of two different administrators"); e) isolation ("Kare's sense of not belonging is further compounded..."); f) fatigue ("I am tired of all this extra stuff right now"); g) lack of control ("I didn't choose it [the Social Studies Kit]. It was in place when I came in"); h) the demands of teaching special needs children in regular classrooms ("It's getting to be a burden for the regular teachers"); and i) discipline problems ("I hate the discipline").

Positive emotional effects were reported less frequently. They also had several causes: a) growing confidence ("This week I learned that I could do it"); b) growth in knowledge about teaching ("She used to raise her voice a lot, but now ..."); c) support from colleagues ("The principal was her 'greatest ego booster'"); and d) the enjoyment of working with children ("I have fun with the kids").

Three implications of these positive and negative effects of teaching experiences were:

1) Improving preservice education, including practicum experience in working with parents, preparation for working with parents, preparation for working with low-ability students as part of educational psychology child development courses, and specific preparation in handling discipline.

2) Tailoring inservice programs to counteract the emotional stress experienced by teachers in their early years, to build confidence, and to solve management problems.

3) Planning by principals to provide praise and encouragement, to assure help with teaching problems and to assist teachers to become accepted members of the school team.

Recommendations

The recommendations which follow are grounded in concerns raised by the teachers in this study. These concerns and corresponding recommendations have been elaborated upon by the researchers and are supported by the literature in teacher education. The recommendations address five areas: the students who are admitted to teacher education programs (Nature of the Student Body); the instructors who teach education students, and the places

where instruction occurs (Instructional Resources); the integration of the student teacher into the university program, and the induction of the new teacher into the school (Socialization); the components of the teacher education program (Program Elements); and how teachers are supported and enabled to develop professionally (Continuing Professional Development).

1. Nature of the Student Body

1.1 Entrance requirements to the Faculty of Education should consider more than the academic record and might include a requirement for prior successful experiences in working with children.

1.2 Entrance requirements to the Faculty of Education might consider personal qualities such as respect for children, enthusiasm, flexibility, tolerance and commitment.

1.3 A quota system should be adopted to limit the number of students entering the Faculty of Education.

2. Instructional Resources

a. Who should teach education courses?

2.1 Professors need to be in touch with classroom life. Ways need to be explored to enable professors to spend time regularly in school classrooms.

2.2 Professors need to exhibit qualities desirable in all teachers: enthusiasm for subject matter, concern for and understanding of students, the ability to challenge students to examine ideas critically, and the ability to present materials in a variety of ways.

2.3 Student teaching should be viewed as an integral and coordinated part of the B.Ed. program. Cooperating teachers and faculty consultants need to work closely in establishing expectations, planning field experiences, and supervising and evaluating student teachers. Teachers who are teaching in ways consistent with current research need to be chosen as cooperating teachers.

2.4 Teams of university professors and practicing teachers should be organized to offer courses in school settings. As well, educators from the field--teachers, consultants, and administrators -- should be involved in the offering of education courses on campus.

b) Where should teacher education take place?

2.5 The length, nature, quality, staffing, and timing of the practicum experience should be re-examined, and articulation between this experience and the campus-based courses and staff should be heightened. Practicum experiences, for example, should be organized in such a way that students have regular opportunities to bring their "real" teaching experiences to the university classroom.

2.6 Practicum settings should be carefully chosen for their capacity to exemplify desirable teaching practices and beliefs. The student, teacher, and faculty consultant must work closely together in these settings and their roles must be clearly defined.

2.7 The possibility of incorporating an extended school experience into the early part of the teacher education program should be examined.

2.8 The possibility of an internship or some type of extended induction program for all beginning teachers should be examined.

2.9 Opportunities for more and varied school-based instruction (within the CI courses, for example) might be created and tried out.

3. Socialization of Teachers

a) Within Faculties of Education

3.1 Education students need to be oriented to the nature of the program as a whole so they can better understand the meaning of the various components and the contribution each should make to their becoming an educated person and teacher.

3.2 Students should be involved with faculty in goal setting and program planning activities in order to build commitment to the profession and understanding of its goals and responsibilities.

3.3 Throughout the B.Ed.. program, students need more opportunities to take responsibility for their own learning. They need to be allowed and encouraged to take risks, experiment, try new ideas, and reflect on their developing teaching styles and philosophies.

3.4 Consideration should be given to a variety of organizational patterns within the faculty that would enable groups of staff and students to work more closely together over an extended period of time. This would help to foster a professional identification with, and a sense of belonging to, the faculty of education.

3.5 Faculty members need to share how their own philosophies of education have developed over their careers so students can see education as a dynamic, evolving process.

b) Within the schools

3.6 The teacher education program should help students to recognize and examine socialization processes as they relate to their own teaching experiences. It should help provide students with a basis for reasoned choice from among the philosophies and practices which they encounter in their professional lives.

3.7 Faculty members should assist students in analyzing school norms and practices and the socialization processes that they encounter in their practicum experiences and during their first years of teaching.

4. Program Elements

a) Interrelatedness of program elements

4.1 Teacher educators must attend to ways of creating a context that will give meaning to the practical ideas to which students are exposed in their education program.

4.2 Teacher educators should consider the advantages to be gained from facilitating and exemplifying integration of arts and education components, practicum and other course work (particularly the CIs), and the subject matter and assignments of the CIs themselves. This might involve:

4.2.1 - coordination of courses by faculty members in order to model integration; some sections of students, for example, might stay together, in some terms, for several courses offered both across and within departments;

4.2.2 -closer liaison between practicum and on-campus courses, and greater opportunity for discussion on campus of experiences, issues, and concerns arising during the practicum;

4.2.3 -exploration of ways to increase the appreciation of student teachers for the value and meaning of the liberal arts component of their program.

4.3 Provision needs to be made for students to work extensively with children in appropriate and carefully supervised field settings These settings may be within the school system, the community, or the university. Linkages which would provide for high quality field experiences for students and reciprocal arrangements between staff should be established between the university and the school systems.

4.4 Instructors should, wherever possible, model the types of instruction that their students could or should be using with children. Allocation of teaching responsibilities, space, and resources in the faculty would need to be made to accommodate this recommendation, and to ensure that all students are introduced to a good variety of models of teaching.

b) Communicating With Parents

4.5 Teacher education programs should address ways of helping students to understand teachers' responsibilities to parents, and should help them to develop cooperative relationships with parents. Special attention should be given to teachers' responsibilities concerning reporting to parents about children's work and progress in school, and to the development of effective communication skills in this area.

c) Cultural and Social Diversity

4.6 The teacher education program should include opportunities for students to have experiences with children from a variety of cultural and social backgrounds. As well, attention must be given to ways of teaching and working with a wide variety of children in classrooms.

d) Classroom Management

4.7 Teacher education programs must address more fully, directly, and explicitly the topic of classroom management, and provide teachers with the means for acquiring skills in this area. This may mean introducing student teachers and Practicing teachers to a variety of models or sets of techniques for classroom management. This must be coupled, however, with critical examination and study of a variety of approaches to classroom organization and classroom relationships.

e) The Curriculum

4.8 Teacher education programs must address more explicitly teachers' responsibilities as designers and shapers of the classroom curriculum; and, considering the nature of the children in their classrooms and their own needs as teachers, to help them to make appropriate choices more readily concerning the curriculum in their own classrooms.

5. Continuing Professional Development

5.1 Principals should provide, either personally, or through some other member of the school staff, an opportunity for continuous support for beginning teachers until these teachers are able to develop a support network of their own.

5.2 School staffs should be responsible for creating a climate where new teachers find it easy to link up with experienced teachers for advice and professional conversations.

5.3 In evaluating beginning teachers, principals and supervisors should recognize that suggestions for improvement must be balanced with the teachers' need for support and continual reassurance that they are performing well.

5.4 Future institutional planning of preservice and inservice programs should be done cooperatively by teacher education and school district staff.